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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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VOLUME I. to IX.

ABAR TO BENARES.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON, 1881.

TO HER MOST GRACIOUS MAJESTY

VICTORIA

QUEEN OF ENGLAND AND EMPRESS OF INDIA

THIS WORK IS BY HER ROYAL PERMISSION

DEDICATED.

PREFACE.

'WE are of opinion,' wrote the Court of Directors in 1807 to their servants in Bengal, 'that a Statistical Survey of the country would be attended with much utility; we therefore recommend proper steps to be taken for the execution of the same.' The despatch from which these words are quoted forms one of a long series of instructions in which the East India Company urged a systematic inquiry into its territories. The first formulated effort in Bengal dates from 1769, four years after that Province came into its hands; the latest orders of the Court of Directors on the subject were issued in 1855, three years before the administration of India passed from the Company to the Crown. During the interval many able and earnest men had laboured at the work, manuscript materials of great value had been amassed, and several important volumes had been published. But such attempts were isolated, directed by no central organization, and unsustained by any continuous plan of execution.

Early efforts under the Company, 1769 to 1855.

The ten years which followed the transfer of the government of India to the Crown in 1858, produced a new set of efforts towards the elucidation of the country. Conspicuous among them was the work begun in 1866 under the direction of Sir Richard Temple, when Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.[1] The controlling power in England had now passed from a body of experts, the Court of Directors, to Parliament and the nation at large. Accurate and accessible information regarding India was become, under the new

Efforts under the Crown, 1858-69.

[1] Executed by Mr. Charles Grant, of the Bengal Civil Service, afterwards (1880) Member of the Viceroy's Legislative Council.

system, an essential condition for the safe exercise of that control. Accordingly, in 1867, the Viceroy, acting on instructions from Her Majesty's Secretary of State, ordered an account to be drawn up for each of the twelve great Provinces of India.[1]

Their failure, 1869.

The Provincial Governments struck out widely divergent schemes for conducting the work. It was as if a command had issued from some central power for a Statistical Survey of all Europe, and each nation set about its execution on a separate plan. It became apparent that vast sums of money would be expended, while considerable uncertainty existed as to the results. One local Government started on a scale which, if generally adopted, would have involved an outlay of £100,000 for the District materials alone. The head of another Province himself[2] carried out the work, expeditiously and at scarcely any cost to the State; but on a system which, although admirably suited to the territories under his care, could not be applied to the rest of India.

Remonstrances by public bodies.

Meanwhile, the commercial community and various public bodies were pressing upon the Government the necessity of systematic organization, with a view to ensure uniformity in the execution of the work. Without such uniformity, the Council of the Asiatic Society pointed out that, when the local compilations came to be finally digested into the General Account of India, there would be no basis for comparative statistics, and much 'of the original work would have to be gone over again *de novo*.'

Renewed efforts, 1869.

The Viceroy arrived at the same conclusion; and in 1869, His Excellency directed me to visit the various Provincial Governments, with a view to 'submit a com-

[1] These Provinces, or rather political divisions under separate administration, were—(1) Bengal; (2) Bombay; (3) Madras; (4) The North-Western Provinces and Oudh; (5) the Punjab; (6) Assam, in 1867 included in Bengal; (7) Central Provinces; (8) British Burma; (9) The Berars, under the Resident at Haidarábád; (10) Mysore and Coorg; (11) Rájputána; (12) Central India.—*Orders of the Government of India*, No. 1758, dated 19th October 1867.

[2] Mr. Alfred Lyall, C.B., of the Bengal Civil Service, then Commissioner of West Berar, now Foreign Secretary to the Government of India.

prehensive scheme for utilizing the information already collected; for prescribing the principles' to be thenceforth adopted; 'and for the consolidation into one work of the whole of the materials that may be available.'

Causes of previous failures.

In carrying out these instructions, I found that the series of previous efforts had failed from two distinct causes. In one class of cases, a central officer of rank and ability had been appointed; but he had not been supported by adequate machinery for collecting the local materials. In another class, the District Officers had been left to work each on his own plan, without the guidance of any single mind. The first class had failed from want of local organization; the second, from want of central control.[1] The task set before me consisted, in fact, of two separate stages—First, a 'local inquiry,' conducted on a uniform scheme, throughout each of the 240 Districts, or administrative units, of British India: Second, the consolidation of the materials thus obtained into one book. The first stage could be effected only

Two stages of the work.

[1] The Governor-General in Council thus summed up the previous efforts, in a Resolution dated the 8th September 1871: 'Three distinct series of operations have in time past been undertaken or encouraged by the Government, with a view to obtaining trustworthy accounts of the country, such as might form a Gazetteer of India; the whole representing a very large outlay, commencing as far back as 1769, and one of the efforts costing £30,000 for merely collecting the materials for part of a single Province. From a variety of causes, all more or less proceeding from defective organization, this large expenditure, while accumulating isolated materials of great value, failed to yield any systematic and comprehensive result.' The Resolution then reviewed the fresh operations ordered by the Secretary of State in 1867. 'Various schemes were set on foot to give effect to these orders, some of them so costly as to be altogether disproportionate to the results to be obtained. But His Excellency in Council observes that excessive costliness is not the only unfortunate effect of the want of organization, which left each local Government to invent a scheme of its own, irrespective of what was being done in other Provinces. There was, in fact, no unity of plan or central supervision, and the results did not contain the materials required for the comparative statistics of the Empire. . . . Widely different schemes have been propounded by the local administrations, some of them involving a very extravagant outlay, others of too meagre a character. Each local Government has given its own interpretation to the work; and the experience of the last few years shows that, in the absence of a central organization, the cost of the enterprise will swell to an enormous total, while the same heterogeneous incompleteness, which rendered all previous efforts infructuous, will again result.'

by a Statistical Survey of India; the second is represented by the Imperial Gazetteer. No basis existed at that time for either of these works. A Census had never been taken for British India; and in some Provinces the different departments of the same Government grounded their financial and administrative demands on widely diverse estimates of the population.

Plan for a Statistical Survey and an Imperial Gazetteer, 1869.

Accordingly, in 1869, I submitted to the Governor-General in Council a Plan for a Statistical Survey and an Imperial Gazetteer of India.[1] It endeavoured, First, to eliminate the causes of previous failures, by providing a uniform scheme, a local mechanism, and a central control. Second, to clearly define the objects of the present undertaking. These objects were partly of an administrative and partly of a general character; namely, 'for the use of the Controlling Body in England, of administrators in India, and of the public.' Third, to secure the co-operation of the Provincial Governments,—lukewarm heretofore in such matters,—by respecting their individuality, and by modifying the uniform scheme to suit the circumstances of their several Provinces. Fourth, to collect the materials at once systematically and cheaply, by enlisting the unpaid agency of the District Officers throughout India under a central control. The Government was pleased to approve of this Plan, and to 'secure for the execution of the design the supervision of the designer.'[2]

Its objects.

Extent of the operations.

'The operations,' wrote the Governor-General in Council, 'will extend over ten separate Governments which, with their Feudatory States, administer a territory of 1½ million square miles and govern a population estimated at 200 million souls (since found to be 240 millions). The work represents, therefore, a series of local inquiries and comparative statistics, spread over an area but little less than that of all Europe, excepting Russia,' and a population then exceeding that

[1] Printed at the Home Secretariat Press, 144 pp. folio. Calcutta, 1870.
[2] *Proceedings of the Government of India*, dated 8th September 1871.

of all Europe, less Russia. With a view to securing uniformity in the materials, I drew up six series of leading questions,[1] illustrating the topographical, ethnical, agricultural, industrial, administrative, and medical aspects of an Indian District. These have served as a basis for the Survey throughout all India. With a view to securing punctuality of execution, Provincial Compilers were appointed, each of whom was made responsible for getting in the returns from the District Officers within the territories assigned to him; for supplementing those returns by information from heads of Departments and other local sources; and for working up the results into the Statistical Account or Gazetteer of the Province. In this way, the unpaid co-operation of the administrative staff throughout the 240 Districts of India was enlisted, the best local knowledge was brought to bear, while in each Province a paid editor was answerable for the completion of the Provincial Account on a uniform plan and within a reasonable time. The supervision of the whole rested with me, as Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India. During one-half of each year, I visited the various Provinces, especially Bengal, which I retained in my own hands as Provincial Editor in addition to my duties as Director-General. The other half, I devoted to testing and working up the results.

Mechanism of the Statistical Survey.

Its practical working.

During the past twelve years, the Statistical Survey has been carried throughout the whole of British India. The District forms the administrative unit in India, and the Statistical Survey furnishes an elaborate account of each of the 240 Districts. The Province is the administrative entity in India, and the Statistical Survey groups the whole of the District materials into fifteen Provincial Accounts or Gazetteers. Such a work, if it is to furnish a basis for administrative action in India, and supply data to the Con-

The Statistical Survey of India.

[1] Circulated to the Provincial Governments, under the title of 'Heads of Information required for the Imperial Gazetteer.'

trolling Body in England, must be at once comprehensive and minute. The District and Provincial Accounts form, therefore, about 100 printed volumes, aggregating 36,000 pages, of which 90 volumes, making over 32,000 pages, have already been issued. The operations have now been completed throughout 12 Provinces and 210 Districts, representing a population of about 190 millions of souls. The small unfinished section deals with a few Districts, for which the materials have been, or are being, collected; and the printed accounts of which will be issued for the most part, it is hoped, during the current year.

The 100 volumes of the Survey; now practically completed.

The following table summarizes the operations of the Statistical Survey in the Provinces of British India:—

THE STATISTICAL SURVEY OF BRITISH INDIA.

PROVINCE.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Number of Districts.	Number of Vols., and Pages printed. Jan. 1881. Vols.	Pages.	Provincial Compiler.
1. Bengal, . . .	196,942	62,815,370	47	20	8,246	W.W. Hunter, C.I.E.
2. Assam, . . .	53,856	4,132,019	13	2	917	W.W. Hunter, C.I.E.
3. North-Western Provinces, .	86,528	31,438,217	35	6	4,200?	E.T. Atkinson, Esq.; A. C. Tupp, Esq.; H. Conybeare, Esq.
4. Punjab, . . .	219,610	22,956,970	32	32	3,000	E. J. Cunningham, Esq.
5. Oudh, . . .	23,992	11,220,232	12	3	1,737	C. M'Minn, Esq.; Dr. Selons.
6. Central Provinces, . .	113,797	9,251,229	19	1	769	C. Grant, Esq.
7. Bombay, 8. Sind, .	191,832	23,180,721	24	9	4,500?	J.M. Campbell, Esq; A. W. Hughes, Esq.
9. Madras, . .	147,789	34,962,005	21	9	5,000?	The District Officers
10. Berar, . . .	17,631	2,226,496	6	1	317	A. C. Lyall, C.B.
11. Mysore, . .	29,325	5,055,412	8	2	1,249	L. Rice, Esq.
12. Coorg, . . .	2,000	168,312	6	1	312	L. Rice, Esq.
13. British Burma,	88,556	2,747,148	15	2	1,628	Captain Spearman.
14. Ajmere and Mhairwára, .	2,711	396,889	1	1	104	J. D. La Touche, Esq.
15. Aden, . . .	35	22,722	1	1	235	Capt. F. M. Hunter.
Total, . .	1,174,604	210,573,742	240	90	32,214	

NOTE.—The area and population include Native States under the administration of the Provincial Governments. The number of Districts is taken from the Parliamentary Abstract for 1877, except that Aden is added, and the number for Bengal is reckoned at 47, being the actual number of Districts dealt with in the Statistical Account of Bengal. Slight alterations have since been made; but the figures will remain substantially the same, till the results of the new Census are known. Mysore was returned to Native Rule in 1881.

The Feudatory States and Chiefdoms, exceeding 300 in number, with 50 millions of people, were from the first placed outside the scope of the Statistical Survey. In these territories it was unsuitable to attempt minute investigations, which the native princes would have been likely to misunderstand, and able to frustrate. Accordingly, my Plan of 1869 restricted the Survey to the British territories, but, at the same time, pointed out that the Native States must be included in the ultimate work for all India, that is, the Imperial Gazetteer. Steps were therefore taken to bring together the information already existing regarding them, and to modestly supplement it. In States temporarily under British management, this was quite practicable; and Major Powlett's account of Ulwar supplies an admirable specimen of what may be done under such circumstances.

Statistical operations in Native States.

Exceptional opportunities.

But apart from exceptional cases, I found that the 300 Native States of India had to be dealt with in five great groups. The first and most numerous class comprised the States and Chiefdoms which are in political dependence to the Provincial Governments. These States have accepted a large measure of British supervision, and the Provincial Compilers were able to draw up fairly adequate accounts of them. The second group consisted of the Rájputána States; and two valuable volumes have been collected regarding them by Mr. Alfred Lyall, C.B., when Governor-General's Agent.[1] For the third group, including the Central India States, I did not find myself in a position to bring forward specific proposals; and in the case of several of them, this book will add but little to the sum of human knowledge. In the fourth group, or the Territories of the Nizám, efforts were made at an early stage to obtain the necessary materials from His

Five great groups of States.

How dealt with; separately.

[1] *The Rájputána Gazetteer*, 1879-80. I regret that the period necessarily occupied in collecting the materials, rendered it impossible for the whole results to reach me in time for the Imperial Gazetteer.

Highness' Government. These efforts did not prove fruitful of results. The fifth group consisted of Frontier and Independent States, such as Afghánistán, Burma, and Nepál. Some account of such States would be expected in the Imperial Gazetteer of India. But any account of them, drawn up from official sources and issued under the authority of the British Government, might give rise to uneasiness among the princes who rule those territories, our neighbours and allies. After full consideration, it was decided that no special inquiry should be made with regard to Independent Kingdoms, and that no official documents should be used. The articles upon them in the Imperial Gazetteer are, accordingly, a mere reproduction of accounts already before the public, and for which no responsibility attaches to the Government.

Frontier kingdoms.

Of the five groups of Native States, therefore, the first was satisfactorily dealt with by means of the Provincial Compilers; the fifth can scarcely be said to have been dealt with at all. In the three intermediate groups, many isolated efforts were made, and a special Assistant was deputed to me in the Foreign Office, Calcutta, with a view to putting together the materials already existing. His labours were afterwards supplemented in the Political Department of the India Office. But the confidential relationship between the Government of India and its Feudatory States, the dislike of the native Princes to inquiries of a social or economic character, and the scrupulous delicacy of the Foreign Office to avoid grounds of offence, have rendered a complete treatment of such territories impossible. I beg that those who use this book will believe that the occasional meagreness of the results, and several instances of quite inadequate treatment, are due not to want of anxious effort on my part, but to the conditions under which I worked. In some cases I have had to fall back on the old materials compiled, at the expense of the Court of

Mechanism employed for the Native States.

Its imperfect results.

Directors, by Mr. Edward Thornton in the India House, and published by their authority, in four volumes, in 1854.[1] As a whole, therefore, the articles on the Native States represent a much less exact method of inquiry than those on the British Provinces. They will be found, however, to mark a material advance in our information regarding Feudatory India. The basis for more systematic operations, a Census, does not exist; and a Statistical Survey of the Native States still remains unattempted. No Statistical Survey of Native States.

The two primary objects of the operations were 'for the use of Indian administrators,' and 'for the use of the Controlling Body in England.' The hundred volumes of the Statistical Survey were expressly compiled for these purposes; and of the twelve years which have elapsed since its commencement, the first eight were devoted to that part of the work. But these hundred volumes, although by no means too elaborate for administrative requirements, are practically within the reach of but a small official class. The third object of the undertaking had been defined in my original Plan, to be 'for the use of the public;' and the remaining four years of the twelve have been chiefly occupied in reducing the voluminous records of the Statistical Survey to a practicable size for general reference. The result is now presented in the nine volumes of the Imperial Gazetteer. The three objects of the work: (1) For Indian administrators; (2) For the Controlling Body in England; (3) For the public.

Previous Gazetteers had described, with industry and sometimes with eloquence, the famous cities of India, its historical sites, and great Provinces. But in the absence of systematic materials, they had to depend on the chance topography of tourists, or on a place Initial steps in compiling the Imperial Gazetteer.

[1] Under the title of *A Gazetteer of the Territories under the East India Company and of the Native States on the Continent of India.* (4 volumes.) This work, excellent at its date, was compiled between the years 1844 and 1854; Mr. Thornton being paid a sum of money by the Court of Directors in addition to his salary, 'it being distinctly understood that the copyright is to vest in the East India Company' (*Resolution of the Court of Directors, 18th February* 1846).

Previous 'chance topography.' happening to find its way into the records of the India House. A petty hamlet in which some traveller halted for a night, or any locality that had formed the subject of a correspondence with the Court of Directors, stood out in bold relief; while great tracts and rivers, or the most important features of large Provinces, were passed over without a word. My first business, therefore, was to take care that every place which deserved mention should be enumerated; my second, to see that it received neither less nor more space than its relative importance demanded. With a view to the first object, I sent circulars to the Provincial Editors and District Officers, calling for a return, upon clearly-stated principles, of every town, river, mountain, historical site, religious resort, commercial fair, harbour, or other place of importance in each District of British India. This list I checked from the Statistical Survey, and supplemented with many places which, although of no local significance, had obtained prominence in the literature of India. Eleven thousand names were thus arranged in alphabetical order. No such list had ever before been compiled for Her Majesty's Indian Empire. After being thinned out, it was printed in a folio volume, and forwarded to all the Local Governments in India, with a request that they would ascertain that the enumeration was correct as regards the territories under their care. I finally revised the list by the light of their suggestions, and selected about 8000 places for treatment in the Imperial Gazetteer.

List of places.

The first of the kind for India.

System of uniform treatment. During the interval which elapsed before their replies could be received, I drew up model articles, showing paragraph by paragraph the method of treatment; and I got together the missing materials for Provinces where the Statistical Survey had not sufficiently advanced to yield them. In this way, I placed in the hand of each contributor to the Imperial Gazetteer

Model articles.

the names of the places of which he was to treat, together with the complete materials for dealing with them, and with an exact mould into which those materials were to be squeezed.

Defects of the work, as an Administrative Guide-book.

The value of the work, as a guide to administration, is impaired by the fact that its figures cannot be brought up to date. The basis of Indian statistics is still the Census of 1872, taken a few months after my appointment as Director-General; and the Government has decided that the publication of the Gazetteer must not be delayed, with a view to obtaining the results of the new Census of 1881. Even the Census of 1872 does not supply a uniform basis for the whole of India; and in certain Provinces I have had to found on enumerations taken in 1867, 1868, and 1869. Much labour has been expended in bringing up the economical statistics to a more recent date, with the help of Administration Reports, and by special inquiries. But the length of time necessarily occupied by a Statistical Survey of a Continent, nearly equal to all Europe less Russia, rendered it inevitable that the results should refer to different years during its progress. My figures represent substantially the population statistics of India in 1872, with the administrative and trade statistics from 1875 to 1879. In some cases, even this degree of uniformity has not been found practicable; in others, I have brought the facts down to 1880. But the reduction of the statistics of India to a uniform basis must be deferred for a second edition, after the results of the new Census are obtained.

Period to which the statistics refer.

Its defects as a general Gazetteer.

In its other aspect, as a book for general reference, the Imperial Gazetteer is also less perfect than I could have wished in several points. The Governor-General in Council found that the task of collecting the administrative materials and statistics would prove a burden

quite as heavy as he deemed expedient to lay upon the Local Governments. The historical aspects were expressly left to the voluntary research of the Provincial compilers. From the first, one of the Local Governments objected even to this moderate scope being allowed for matters not directly of an official character. The emphasis which the Governor-General in Council laid in 1875 on the responsibilities of the Provincial Governments for the tone and contents of the work, seemed to several of them to render general disquisitions unsuitable. Even in the Provinces of Bengal and Assam, which I retained in my own hands as Provincial Editor, every sheet had to receive the sanction of the Local Government before it was printed off. Many topics of social or political interest were excluded, and a general introductory volume, after being in part printed, was not issued.

Deficient in history.

The true history of India.

But if the history of India is ever to be anything more than a record of conquest and crime, it must be sought for among the people themselves. Valuable historical materials had been collected for the Statistical Survey; and in 1877, the Secretary of State for India decided that a wider scope should be allowed me for their use in the Imperial Gazetteer. I have done my best to give effect to that view; and it will be seen, for the first time in these volumes, that every Indian District has its own history. The true territorial unit of Indian history is, indeed, much smaller than the British District. For example, he who would study the history of Oudh must search for it in the *parganá* or parish; in other parts of India, the *zamíndárí* or estate is the historical unit; in others, the chiefship; while in a few, the rural districts were mere appendages to the great cities. Had it been permitted to subject the rural annals of India to systematic inquiry, as I wished, a rich harvest would have been gathered in. The historical accumulations made

Where it is to be found.

by the wayside, in conducting the Statistical Survey, have proved of much value. But in attempting to incorporate them in the Imperial Gazetteer, I have had frequently to choose between using materials which, owing to the earlier instructions, I had been unable to test; or rejecting statements, in themselves novel and interesting, but which, in the later stages of the work, I could not personally verify.

Some progress made.

The latitudes and longitudes have, with a few exceptions, been tested by the Surveyor-General's Department.[1] I have to thank General Sir H. Thuillier for many years of friendly help, and Colonel J. T. Walker for more recent assistance, in the geographical details. Areas, distances, and similar details have been taken from the latest scientific measurements; but the frequent changes in the jurisdiction of Indian Districts introduce an element of variation difficult to eliminate. In some cases, averages will not work out correctly, as in the rates of local taxation per head, where the municipal area often differs from the town area taken for the Census. In other instances, the items will not add up; as in certain Districts where the religious classification of the people does not yield the exact total arrived at by the general enumeration. There are not very many discrepancies of this sort, and no labour has been spared to get rid of them. But in several cases I cannot go beyond the figures supplied to me by the local authorities; and although I may see that there is something wrong, I am unable to set it right. I beg

Geographical details.

Elements of error.

[1] The longitudes require a constant correction of *minus* 2½ minutes (—0° 2′ 30″) to reduce them from the adopted value of 80° 17′ 21″ for the longitude of the Madras Observatory, on which they have been based, to the value of 80° 14′ 51″, which was determined electro-telegraphically in 1876-77. It is not improbable that some further minute correction may be hereafter made; and the Surveyor-General has deemed it undesirable that the values of all the individual longitudes should be altered, until the final determination has been arrived at.

that those who may come after me will, in improving on my work, remember the conditions under which it has been done. When it was begun, no one knew exactly the population of a single Province of India, or of a single District of Bengal. In the latter Province alone, the Census of 1872 suddenly disclosed the presence of 22 millions of British subjects whose existence had never previously been suspected. The population of Bengal and Assam, up to that time reckoned at 40 millions, was ascertained to number 67¾ millions of souls.

Spelling of Indian Proper Names.

The spelling of names of Indian places has long formed a subject of controversy. Without a uniform system of rendering them, an alphabetical Gazetteer could not start; and one of my first duties was to lay down a system for transliterating Indian Proper Names. In existing Gazetteers of India, the same word appears under many forms. The best work of this class gives eleven different spellings of the same town, not one of which is exactly correct; and in order to be sure of finding a place, the inquirer has to look it up under every possible disguise. The truth is, it requires a long study of the vernacular languages of India, and some knowledge of Sanskrit, which forms the key to them all, before one is able to spell names even in the native alphabets. It next requires a well-considered system of transliteration in order to render the word in the English character. For it must be remembered that the Sanskrit alphabet has fifty letters or signs, while the English alphabet has only twenty-six. Thus, the Roman alphabet has but one letter for the consonant *n;* the Sanskrit has four letters for it, in its various modifications, as a dental, lingual, palatal, and guttural. On the other hand, the Indian alphabets attach a uniform sound to each vowel; while in English, the same

Inherent difficulty of transliteration.

vowel may have several sounds, such as *u* in *but*, *put*, *cure*, *rural*. Indian names can, therefore, be represented only in a loose and popular manner in our alphabet; unless, indeed, we manufacture a new Roman alphabet with additional letters, by means of accents over the vowels, dots under the consonants, italics, or similar devices of typography.

System adopted in this work.

A recognition of this fundamental difficulty should make an Indian spelling-reformer moderate in his aims and patient of opposition. I first collected about 15,000 names of places, written out by competent natives in the vernacular character; and transliterated them accurately on the method adopted by the Royal Asiatic Society. But the multitude of accented vowels and dotted consonants convinced me that such precision was impracticable for popular use. I therefore re-transliterated them on a more simple system, discarding dotted consonants altogether, using as few accents as possible over the vowels, and abstaining from liberties with the alphabet which would give it an un-English look, and perplex the ordinary reader. My object was, not to write a paper for the Asiatic Society's Journal, but to lay down a uniform system which would settle the long discussion about Indian orthography, by being adopted by all fairly educated men.

Difficulties of the task.

The task was complicated by the circumstance that three systems had co-existed during nearly a century. For two of the rivals a good case might be made out. Popular usage had drawn at random from all three, and a number of important places had thus obtained an historical or literary fixity of spelling. Well-known names of this class, when transliterated in an unwonted fashion, or by a rival method, had a strange look, which afforded scope for pleasantries. Yet one system had to be accepted and resolutely adhered to. The method which I have adopted does not attempt

to represent the fine distinctions of the Sanskrit consonants, such as the dental and lingual *d*. But it attaches a uniform value to each vowel, namely, *a* and *u* as in *rural; e* as in *grey*, *méchant;* and *i* and *o* as in *police*. The accented *á*, *í*, and *ú* represent the long forms of the same vowels in Sanskrit, or the sounds in the English words *far*, *pier*, and *lure*.

Uniform vowel sounds.

Names with historical fixity of spelling.

Some Indian names, however, have grown so familiar as to render a rectification of their spelling impracticable. Such names have been considerately dealt with. I found that they arranged themselves under two classes. In the first class, the popular or historical fixity of spelling had so hardened and set as to preclude any alteration whatever; thus, Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. In the second class, it was possible to bring the spelling somewhat nearer to the uniform system without destroying the historical or popular identity of the word. For example, the multiform terminal *pur*, *pore*, *poor*, *poore*, a city, might be uniformly given in its correct Hindi form as *pur*, even if the body of the word could not be rectified; while the similar termination *nagar*, *nagore*, *nugger*, *nuggur*, *naggore*, etc., a town, might be uniformly rendered *nagar*. Such a system, like all compromises, was open to the strictures of both the extreme parties—of the scrupulous purists on the one hand, and of the obstinate upholders of the old confused spelling on the other. It commended itself to the intermediate body of reasonable men. The Government of India, in 1870, accordingly promulgated my system of transliteration in the Official Gazette, and formally authorized its adoption.

Introduction of the system.

It remained to organize machinery for enforcing its general use. Several of the leading Indian journals at once expressed their willingness to adopt a uniform system which presented no typographical difficulties.

Up to that time, the same place used to appear under diverse forms in the different newspapers, and was often variously rendered in different columns of the same journal. A printed volume containing the correct spelling of all Indian places was circulated to the Press, to literary institutions, libraries, publishing houses, and to the official Departments. But the chief sources from which Indian news is derived, and from which Indian orthography emanates, are the Government Gazettes and Administration Reports. The official Gazettes in India give much of the information which in England would be communicated by Her Majesty's Ministers to Parliament. Each Provincial Government has its own set of Reports and its own Gazette—the latter sometimes swelling into a weekly folio of over a hundred pages, filled with State papers. The Governor-General requested each of the Provincial Governments to draw up a list of places within its own territories, spelt on my system. These lists, after receiving his sanction, were to be published in the Gazettes, and to be thenceforth adopted in them and all other official publications.

The new system adopted for all official publications.

The Provincial Governments carried out the principles of transliteration with varying degrees of uniformity, and took widely different views as to the number of names which had obtained a popular fixity of spelling. This was inevitable; and the Governor-General in Council, in revising the lists, endeavoured to remove divergences and to attain the maximum degree of uniformity. Owing to the number of languages and alphabets used in India, the work extended over nearly ten years. The Provincial Governments have been induced to reconsider their first efforts; and in each new edition, they have approached more closely to the lines originally laid down. In one Presidency, indeed, the latest revision has gone beyond the limits of accuracy which I had thought practicable. Throughout

Provincial lists revised by Supreme Government of India.

India, every year sees the uniform system of spelling more generally introduced; it has been accepted in the Parliamentary blue-books at home, and is irresistibly forcing its way into the English press.

Spelling in the Imperial Gazetteer.

Meanwhile, the Imperial Gazetteer had to march on. The Government decided that the publication of the whole work should not, in any circumstances, be delayed beyond the year 1881. The proof sheets had to pass under the revision of the Secretary of State in Council; and most of them were, accordingly, printed in 1879 and 1880. I therefore did my best to arrive at the true spelling of each name, starting from my own lists in the vernacular character, and usually accepting the Provincial lists as drawn up by the Local Governments, when they arrived in time; although not delaying the work by waiting for their final revision.

Provincial variations.

It sometimes happened that adjoining Governments adopted different renderings for the same word, such as a river or a border district; while each Government introduced variations in revised editions of its own list. If an attempt were made to introduce a uniform system of spelling proper names for all Europe, similar delays and difficulties would arise. It must be remembered, too, that India has no common alphabet, like the Roman in Europe, but a variety of local characters, which render the same words by different letters. Thus, apart from the difficult subject of dental and lingual forms; the commonest of all terminals, *pur*, a town, is spelt with a short *u* in Hindi and by most of the Sanskrit family of alphabets, and with a long *ú* in the Urdu alphabet, derived from Arabic sources. Dialectic variations also play a confusing part; a universal place-name like Sivapur or Shivapur, being hardened into Sibpur in Bengal, and softened into Hiwapur in the adjoining Province of Assam. It will therefore be possible to discover instances in which the rendering of

No common alphabet in India.

Dialectic variations.

a name in the Imperial Gazetteer differs from that ultimately sanctioned by the Government of India. But candid inquirers will, I hope, find the degree of uniformity which has been arrived at by the Provincial Governments and myself, more surprising than the occasional variations.

I must not let this work pass from my hands without expressing my sincere thanks for the help which I have so liberally received in its preparation. It has been officially described as the only example of a great national undertaking of the sort, being carried out under the uninterrupted direction of one mind, from the initial District Survey to the final alphabetical compilation in a Gazetteer. But such merits as it may be found to possess, are due in large measure to the zealous and friendly help of my fellow-workers. I feel especially grateful to the District Officers throughout India who have supplied the local materials. On their unselfish labours the fabric of this work, as, indeed, of the whole Indian administration, rests. The Provincial Compilers of the Statistical Survey, enumerated on page xii., have also my sincere thanks. In particular, the volumes of Mr. Atkinson on the North-Western Provinces; of Mr. Campbell on the Bombay Presidency; and of Mr. Rice on Mysore, form models of administrative research. Mr. Hughes' work on Sind also deserves high praise.

Acknowledgments.

Thanks to the District Officers;

to the Provincial Compilers.

The condensation of the Statistical Survey of the Provinces into the Imperial Gazetteer has been conducted chiefly in England, where the cost of literary work is much less than in India. In that task I have had, at intervals, the aid of Mr. H. P. Platt, Fellow of Lincoln College; Major-General J. Clarke, formerly Commissioner in Oudh; Mr. J. S. Cotton, late Fellow and Lecturer at Queen's College, Oxford; Mr. Grant Allen, late of

Thanks to my coadjutors in England.

Merton College, Oxford; Miss Alice Betham (now Mrs. Mackenzie), sometime Acting Tutor of Girton College, Cambridge; Miss Margaret Robertson; Mr. G. Barclay, M.A.; the Rev. E. Cunningham, M.A.; Mr. Philip Robinson, late Professor of History in the Government College, Allahábád. I shall ever look back with pleasure to my connection with this able and friendly body of fellow-workers. To Mr. Cotton, and to Mr. Charles Dollman who has been my assistant throughout, I owe in a special manner my thanks.

Acknowledgments to former Administrators.

Apart from the literary compilation, I have endeavoured to bring the best practical knowledge to bear upon the revision of the work. My obligations in this respect to distinguished Indian Administrators are too numerous to be specifically detailed. But I desire particularly to thank Sir William Muir, formerly Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, for his kind revision of the article on those territories; Sir William Robinson, sometime Acting Governor of Madras, for his contributions to articles on that Presidency, and for his untiring friendly help; Sir Robert Montgomery and Sir Henry Davies, sometime Lieutenant-Governors of the Punjab; Mr. Lewin Bowring, C.B., sometime Chief Commissioner of Mysore; and General Fytche, C.S.I., sometime Chief Commissioner of British Burma, for their personal contributions to, or revisions of, the articles on the Provinces which they formerly ruled. Mr. J. H. Batten, sometime Commissioner of Kumáun and Garhwál, supplied in chief part the articles on these Districts. Many other retired administrators have, in like manner, enriched my materials with monographs on the territories in which their life's work was done. In each of the principal articles, I have tried to get the sheets revised by the person with the largest administrative experience of the Presidency or Province. To Colonel Yule, C.B., the editor of *Marco Polo*, I am

indebted for scholarly and most generous aid in all articles which deal with the mediæval history of India.

A separate Archæological Survey is now at work in India; but only a very small portion of its results reached me in time to be incorporated into the Imperial Gazetteer. The existence of that Survey precluded me from independent researches within its jurisdiction. I hope, therefore, that the next edition of this work will deal more fully and accurately with Indian antiquities than it has been in my power to do. But the reader will find how deeply my pages are indebted to the Reports already issued by General Cunningham, the head of the Archæological Survey; and to Dr. Burgess, the Archæological Surveyor for Western India. Mr. W. Rees Philipps has assisted me in the revision of the Madras articles, and supplied an interesting monograph on the Christian population. Mr. Buchan, the secretary to the Royal Scottish Meteorological Society, kindly revised the section of article INDIA which deals with his branch of science. My obligations to other friends, too numerous to enumerate here, are mentioned in the body of the work. Finally, I beg to tender my thanks to their Excellencies the Viceroy of Portuguese India, and the Governor-General of French India, for their courtesy to me while visiting their territories; and for materials placed at my disposal by the chiefs of their respective administrations.

The Archæological Sections.

Why deficient.

But I cannot close these acknowledgments without recording my sense of the fairness with which I have invariably been treated by the Governments that have had to supervise the work. Twelve years ago, I laid down the conditions which I regarded as essential for the right conduct of the enterprise, and on which I was willing to undertake it. Very deliberately, indeed not till two years afterwards, were those conditions accepted by the Supreme Government of India of that day. But

Revision by the Local Governments.

it attached to them a proviso that each of the Local Governments should be responsible for the general scope and contents of the Provincial Accounts of its own territories; and the Secretary of State accepted a similar responsibility as regards the final compilation of the Imperial Gazetteer.

The result was that, as already stated, every page of the twenty volumes of the Account of Bengal had to be passed by the Government of that Province, and every sheet of the Imperial Gazetteer has been submitted to the Secretary of State. But during the progress of the work, the *personnel* of the Local Governments has changed over and over again. More than thirty Governors or heads of administrations have ruled the Indian Provinces, while four successive Viceroys and four Secretaries of State have directed the Indian Empire. Some of these great functionaries have held decided opinions of their own on many important questions which arose in the conduct of the operations. The work, therefore, is the result of several not perfectly parallel forces. On the one hand, there was myself, with a staff of fellow-workers chosen not more for their accuracy of mind than for their firmness of character, and representing the Plan as originally laid down: on the other hand, there were a number of shifting Governments, local and central, some of them divergent in their views, and any one of them able to render my position difficult, and even, for a time, to impede the work.

The shifting *personnel* of the revising bodies.

The difficulties of the situation.

The delicacy of the situation was enhanced by the circumstance, that many points had to be decided in my absence from the headquarters of the Government of India. From the first, during half of each year I was visiting the Local Governments, or on circuit through the Provinces; latterly, I have been in England for considerable periods, while compiling the Imperial Gazetteer. I have to thank the Indian Governments, not only for

the patience with which they have always listened to my views, but for the courteous reconsideration of decisions which they had arrived at in my absence. I undertook to see the work to an end, and I was placed in the best position for doing so. I have been enabled to examine the various Provinces of India with my own eyes, to study their local circumstances, and to travel over fifty thousand miles by every means of civilised and uncivilised transport.

If I have brought to a successful issue an enterprise in which abler men had failed, it is due to the loyal support which I have received. The Governor-General in Council, or the Secretary of State, might at any time have simply ordered me to adopt the methods or measures which seemed to him best. Yet not only has there never been a single occasion during the twelve years in which commands have thus been substituted for argument; but orders, passed after full deliberation, have been modified or rescinded to suit what I believed to be the requirements of the work. No revision by the Indian Government could take the primary responsibility off myself. This has been generously recognised throughout; and the double supervision has never been permitted to give rise to a strain in the conduct of the undertaking. Whatever blemishes or deficiencies may be found in these volumes are due, therefore, not to the difficult double system of responsibility imposed by the Government, but to my own self, or to the fundamental conditions under which statistical inquiries have to be conducted in India.

Those difficulties sucessfully averted.

Now that the twelve years' work is over, and nothing can be added or taken away, I feel those blemishes and deficiencies acutely enough. When I started, I had two national enterprises in my mind: the *Aín-i-Akbarí*, or statistical survey of India, conducted three hundred

The Mughal Survey of India, 1580 A.D.

years ago by the Finance Minister of Akbar, the greatest of Mughal Emperors; and the military survey of Egypt, executed by France in the first quarter of the present century.[1] The former is a masterpiece of administrative detail; the latter a brilliant effort of organized research. It was my hope, and the wish of the Viceroy—now, alas! gone from this world—who most deeply impressed his personality on the undertaking, to make a memorial of England's work in India, more lasting, because truer and more complete, than these monuments of Mughal Empire and of French ambition.

The French Survey of Egypt, 1815.

Separate scientific Surveys of India.

The scientific aspects of the country, its fauna, flora, and geology, already form the subject of elaborate volumes. For the most important of them, such as the fishes, botany, geology, meteorology, and medical aspects of India, special Surveys or Departments exist. It would have been improper for me to intrude upon the ground so ably occupied. I have therefore confined myself on these heads to brief but careful sketches, such as might be useful to practical administrators, and referred the scientific inquirer to the separate standard works, or to the publications of the professional Indian Surveys.

The work paid for by India; and for its use.

I have ever borne in mind that the work has been paid for by the Indian people, and that it was primarily designed as an aid to the better government of their country. Since the authority passed from the Company

[1] Description de L'Egypte, ou recueil des observations et des recherches qui ont été faites en Egypte pendant l'expédition de l'armée Francaise. (36 volumes, 1821.) Twenty-one years were given to this magnificent work, four of them being devoted to local inquiries at the time of the military occupation, and seventeen being spent in working up the results. 'La France,' says the preface, after setting forth the brilliant and numerous staff of *savans* who took part in the survey, 'avait réuni tous ses efforts pour la conquête de cette contrée; tous les efforts des arts ont été employés pour sa description.' The area dealt with was only a fraction of that now covered by the Statistical Survey of India; the cost of the operations was many times as great. The results were sumptuously published under an Ordonnance du Roi, dated 1820, and dedicated to His Majesty Louis XVIII., in 25 volumes of letterpress and 11 double folios of maps and illustrations.

to the Crown, fundamental changes have taken place alike in the central control and in the local administration. As already mentioned, the transfer of the controlling power from the Court of Directors, a small body with special knowledge of the country, to Parliament, an assembly whose members have had for the most part no opportunity of studying Indian affairs, caused the necessity for a standard account of India to be more keenly felt. No book exists, sufficiently accurate and sufficiently comprehensive, to be generally accepted as a work of reference. Contradictory assertions can therefore be safely hazarded on almost every point of Indian statistics; and Indian discussions commonly lose themselves in a wilderness of irrelevant issues.

Altered conditions of Indian Government;

But if a standard account of India is required for the Controlling Body in England, the altered conditions of Indian service have rendered such a work still more necessary for the local administrators. The Company's servants accepted India as their home, and generally remained a long time in one District. But under the beneficent policy of the Queen's Proclamation, the natives of India every year engross a larger share of the actual government. The English administrators are accepting their ultimate position as a small and highly-mobilised superintending staff. They are shifted more rapidly from District to District, and the new system of furlough, with a view to keeping them at the utmost efficiency, encourages them to take their holidays at short intervals of four years, instead of granting long periods of idleness once or twice in a quarter of a century's service. They have not the same opportunities for slowly accumulating personal knowledge of one locality; on the other hand, their energies are not allowed to be eaten away by rust. An officer, who had spent a dozen

provided for by this work.

years in one District might have little to learn from a printed account of it; but to the present generation of quickly changed 'officiating' functionaries, such a work is indispensable.

Conclusion.

The thanks, gazetted and private, of the Provincial Governments prove that the Statistical Survey has fulfilled this its primary design in India. I hope that the Imperial Gazetteer will be found to answer the same purpose for the Controlling Body in Parliament, and the English public. It furnishes, for the first time, an account of India based upon a personal survey of the country, and upon an actual enumeration of the people. I trust that it may transfer many Indian questions, from the region of haphazard statement, to the jurisdiction of calm knowledge. 'Nothing,' I wrote in my original Plan, submitted to the Viceroy in 1869, 'nothing is more costly to a Government than ignorance.' I believe that, in spite of all its defects, this work will prove a memorable episode in the long battle against ignorance; a breakwater against the tide of prejudice and false opinions flowing down upon us from the past; and a foundation for a truer and wider knowledge of India in time to come. Its aim has been, not literary graces, nor scientific discovery, nor antiquarian research; but an earnest endeavour to render India better governed, because better understood.

The cost of ignorance.

For the first time in the history of our rule, an opportunity has fallen to me of finding out the truth about the Indian people, and of honestly telling it. Whether I have used that opportunity in a worthy spirit, and whether I have succeeded in the task in which so many previous attempts have failed, it is for others to judge. Sound knowledge is of slow growth, and no intensity of effort can do in twelve years for India what centuries of local research have accomplished for Europe. But when I compare the basis for future effort created by these volumes, with the absence

of any systematic materials when I commenced the work, I feel that the first and most difficult stage has been passed. If the statistical survey of the Mughal India, conducted by Akbar's finance minister, had afforded such a basis, it would have proved invaluable to English administrators. What would European scholars not give for a similar account of the Roman Empire! The territories dealt with in these volumes far exceed the Provinces which paid tribute to the Great Akbar, and contain a population exactly double Gibbon's estimate of all the nations and races that obeyed Imperial Rome. I leave the work to the charitable judgment of those who can contrast it with the efforts of Indian statists who have gone before me; I also leave it with a sure confidence that it will be improved by brethren of my Service who come after me.

W. W. HUNTER.

April 12, 1881.

VOWEL SOUNDS.

a	has the sound of *a* as in	rural.
á	has the sound of *a* as in	far.
e	has the sound of the vowel in	grey.
i	has the sound of *i* as in	police.
í	has the sound of the vowels in	pier.
o	has the sound of *o* as in	bone.
u	has the sound of *u* as in	bull.
ú	has the sound of *u* as in	sure.
ai	has the sound of y as in	lyre.

Accents have been used as sparingly as possible; and omitted in such words or terminals as *pur*, where the Sanskrit family of alphabets takes the short vowel instead of the long Persian one. The accents over *í* and *ú* have often been omitted, to avoid confusing the ordinary English reader, when the collocation of letters naturally gives them a long or open sound. No attempt has been made by the use of dotted consonants to distinguish between the dental and lingual *d*, or to represent similar refinements of Indian pronunciation.

Where the double *oo* is used for *u*, or the double *ee* for *i*, and whenever the above vowel sounds are departed from, the reason is either that the place has obtained a popular fixity of spelling, or that the Government has ordered the adoption of some special form.

I have borne in mind four things—First, that this work is intended for English readers. Second, that the twenty-six characters of the English alphabet cannot possibly be made to represent the fifty letters or signs of the Indian alphabets, unless we resort to puzzling un-English devices of typography, such as dots under the consonants, curves above them, or italic letters in the middle of words. Third, that as such devices are unsuitable in a work of general reference, some compromise or sacrifice of scholarly accuracy to popular convenience becomes inevitable. Fourth, that a compromise to be defensible must be successful, and that the spelling of Indian places, while adhering to the Sanskrit vowel sounds, should be as little embarassing as possible to the European eye.

W. W. H.

Deputy-Commissioner of Hazára, 1847-1853. Picturesquely situated at southern corner of Rásh (Orásh) plain, 4120 feet above the sea, 63 miles from Ráwal Pindi, 40 miles from Murree (Marrí), 125 miles from Pesháwar. Lat. 34° 9′ 15″ N., long. 73° 15′ 30″ E. Pop. (1868)—cantonments, 2894; civil station, 1589—total, 4483. Garrison lines exist for the Gúrkhá Battalion, a native infantry regiment of the Punjab Frontier Force, and a European battery of Mountain Artillery. Headquarters of Frontier Force Staff. Water supply abundant from wells, but impregnated with lime. Large *bázár*, District court-house and treasury, jail, dispensary, staging bungalow, post office, telegraph station, small church. Snow falls occasionally from December to March, but rarely lies long; hot weather from April to July; rains, July to September. Principal disease, intermittent fever, attributed to irrigation of rice fields. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £211, or 3s. 6d. per head of pop. (1194) within municipal limits.

Abdu.—Government town in Sukkur Shikárpur Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 27° 50′ 30″ N., long. 68° 50′ 30″ E. Pop. 1201; Muhammadans, 734, chiefly of Koreshi, Mahar, Machhi, and Súmra tribes; Hindus, 467, chiefly Bráhmans, Lohános, and Sonáros. Travellers' bungalow.

Abhiráman.—Town in Rámnád estate, Madura District, Madras. Lat. 9° 26′ 30″ N., long. 78° 28′ 45″ E. Pop. 6313, principally traders, both Muhammadans and Chetties, the Hindu trading caste; houses, 1281. Chief industry, cotton-weaving by a numerous weaving caste; considerable trade in grain. Situated close to the large lake of the same name; 13 miles S.W. of Paramakudi, in jurisdiction of sub-magistrate of Tiruchulai (Trishúli). Possesses good supply of drinking water and fine irrigation tank, used by the Maravar and Vellálar cultivating castes for extensive paddy crops. Old name, Nallúr. A local superstition declares that within an area of two miles of the town, snake-bite is innocuous.

Abji.—Government town in Nausháhro Deputy Collectorate, Hyderabad District, Sind. Founded about 1750 A.D. Lat. 26° 52′ 30″ N., long. 68° 1′ 15″ E. Pop. 1147, mainly agricultural. A small trade in grain and sugar.

Ablagundi.—The western pass from the Ramandroog plateau in the Súndúr State, Madras Presidency. The stream, which afterwards forms the main feeder of the Darojí lake, enters the valley through this pass from the westward.

Abor Hills, Assam Frontier.—*See* ABAR.

Abu.—A celebrated mountain, Sirohee State, Rájputána. Lat. 24° 35′ 37″ N., long. 72° 45′ 16″ E.; 50 miles N.N.E. from Siddhapur. Although regarded as part of the Aravalli range, Abu is completely detached from that chain, and rises from the surrounding plains of Marwar like

a precipitous granite island from the sea. The ascent, which is usually made by a good road from Anádra on the south-west, is steep on all sides, and the top spreads out into a picturesque plateau, broken by fantastic peaks and surrounded by a natural wall of granite. Highest point, Gurusikar, in the northern part of the plateau; 5650 feet above sea level. Abu is the summer residence of the Governor-General's Agent for Rájputána, and a hot-weather resort for Europeans. The station, with an English church, barracks, and Lawrence School, is charmingly situated on the high undulating plateau. Loftier heights surround it, and a beautiful little lake, called Nakhi Taláo,—popularly translated the 'Nail Lake,' but more appropriately the 'Gem Lake,'—lies 4000 feet above the sea. In 1822 Tod described this water as 'about four hundred yards in length,' and the counterpart of the lake three miles above Andernach on the Rhine. 'It is,' he writes, 'surrounded by rocks, wooded to the margin, while the waterfowls skim its surface unheeding and unheeded by man; for on this sacred hill neither the fowler's gun nor fisher's net is known, "Thou shalt not kill" being the supreme command, and the penalty of disobedience, death.'[1] Great changes have taken place on Abu since then; but the Nakhi Taláo is still a beautiful sheet of water, and from different points in the walk surrounding it, delightful views are obtained. It contains a few small tree-clad islands, and a *bandh* or dam has recently been built across the gorge at the west end (where the overflow runs off), in order to increase the depth of the water, fears having been entertained that it might run dry, or nearly so, should an exceptionally light monsoon occur.

It is as the site of the most exquisite Jain buildings in the world, and as a place of pilgrimage, that Mount Abu is celebrated. The following details are condensed, principally from an account furnished by Mr. Burgess, Archæological Surveyor to the Government of Bombay. In the thirteenth century Mount Abu, the ancient *Arbuda*, was held by the Parmárs of Chandravatí, vassals of the old Hindu kings of Guzerat. The site of Chandravatí, a little to the south-east of Abu,—once a splendid capital,—is now indicated only by mounds of ruined temples and palaces. The Muhammadan Sultáns of Ahmedabad first, the Thákurs of Girwar more recently, and up to the present day the head-men to whom the Sirohee Ráo grants charge of the village, have carried away and burnt into lime the marble slabs, columns, and statues, so that few fragments are left except such as are covered by *débris*.

Although Abu is not one of the greater Jain *tírthas*, or holy places, it can boast of at least two of the most beautiful of Jain temples. These are at Delwárá, or *Devalwárá*, the place of temples, about a mile north of the station. Here are five temples in all, one of the largest

[1] Tod's *Travels in Western India*, pp. 115, 116.

being three-storied, dedicated to Rishabhanáth, the first of the twenty-four Tírthankars, or deified men, whom the Jains worship. The shrine, which is the only enclosed part of the Rishabhanáth temple, has four doors, facing the cardinal points. The image inside is quadruple, and is called a *Chaumukh*, a not unfrequent form of this Tírthankar. On the west side, the temple has a double *mandap* or portico, and on the other three sides single ones, each supported on 8 columns. The corners between the domes are occupied by 6 more columns, which, with the 4 columns added to each octagon to form the square, give 16 on each quarter between the lines of entrance. Over the square formed by the pillars on the lines of the inner sides of the octagons rise the pillars of the second story, whilst the walls of the shrine are carried up to the roof. This form of temple, with its four approaches, ample domes, and shady colonnades, is a fine type of the Jain style of temple architecture, and from it, by very simple modifications, the other prevalent forms may easily be deduced. North of Rishabhanáth's *Chaumukh*, and on a raised platform, is another large temple, without a spire, but with a roofed *mandap*, which is locally known by the name of Benchasah's. South-east by south from the *Chaumukh* is a third temple, enclosed by a high wall, and known as Dailak, or the temple of Adisvara (or Rishabhanáth) and Gorakhalanchan.

To the west of the *Chaumukh* stand the two finest temples of Abu: the one known as Vimalasáh's, dedicated to Adisvara, or Adinátha, another name for Rishabhanáth, the first Tírthankar; and opposite it, on the north side, the temple of Vastupála and Tejahpála, dedicated to Neminách, the twenty-second of the Tírthankars. The date of the former seems to be given in an inscription in which the following sentence has been read: 'Samvat 1088 (A.D. 1031), by the blessing of Ambá, Vimalasáh built the temple of Adináthá: this plate records its repair in Samvat 1379 (A.D. 1322), on Monday the ninth day of the light fortnight of Jaistha.' Several inscriptions over the shrines around the court are dated in Samvat 1245 (A.D. 1188), and record their dedication to Sántináth, the 16th, and Aranáth, the 18th Tírthankar, by 'Yasodhavala, of the race of Prágváta,' or his family.[1] Both the temples of Vimalasáh and of Vastupála are built of white marble, and carved with all the delicacy and richness of ornament which the resources of Indian art at the time of their erection could devise. Inscriptions fix the date of the Vimalasáh temple at 1031 A.D., and the construction of the Vastupála edifice from 1197 to 1247.

'Were twenty persons,' says Mr. Fergusson,[2] 'asked which of these

[1] *Asiatic Researches*, vol. xvi. p. 312.

[2] *Picturesque Illustrations of Ancient Architecture in Hindustán*, p. 39. See also Mr. Fergusson's admirable account at pp. 234-239 of his new edition of the *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (1876).

two temples were the most beautiful, a large majority would, I think, give their vote in favour of the more modern one, which is rich and exuberant in ornament to an extent not easily conceived by one not familiar with the usual forms of Hindu architecture. The difference between the two is much the same that exists between the choir of Westminster Abbey, and Henry the Seventh's chapel that stands behind it. I prefer the former, but I believe that nine-tenths of those that go over the building prefer the latter.'

The temple of Vimalasáh is constructed on the usual model of Jain temples, which, though of very great variety as to size, are generally similar in plan. It consists of a shrine lighted only from the door, containing a cross-legged seated figure, in brass, of the first Jaina-Adisvara, to whom this temple is dedicated. In front of this is a platform, which, with the shrine, is raised three steps above the surrounding court. The platform and greater part of the court are covered by a *mandap*, or outer portico, cruciform in plan, and supported by forty-eight columns. The eight central pillars of this porch are so arranged as to form an octagon, supporting a dome, which, together with its circular rims and richly-carved pendant, forms the most striking and beautiful feature of the entire composition. The whole is enclosed in an oblong courtyard about 140 feet by 90 feet, surrounded by fifty-five cells, each of which contains a cross-legged statue of one or other of the Tírthankars. The doorposts and lintels of these cells or subordinate shrines round the court are carved in most elaborate devices, with human figures interspersed with foliage and architectural ornaments of the most varied complexity. In front of these cells, and forming porticoes to them, is a double colonnade of smaller pillars, their bases standing on a platform raised three steps above the court. In a small cell in the south-west corner is the image of Ambáji, a *devi* or familiar goddess, always associated with Nemináth.[1] Vastupála's temple is dedicated to Nemináth, and as the adjoining cell also contains a colossal black marble image of the same Tírthankar, it may possibly be an indication that this shrine was likewise at first dedicated to Nemináth. On each of the three outer faces of the central dome of the *mandap*, the roof is carried on tall pillars to that of the corridors in front of the cells, thus leaving two small square courts near the front corners of the enclosure, besides the open space round the central shrine, to admit light to the whole area. 'Externally,' says Mr. Fergusson,[2] 'the temple is perfectly plain, and there is nothing to indicate the magnificence within except the spire'—or rather pyramidal roof—'of the cell peeping over the plain wall; though even this is the most insignificant part of the erection.' 'And,' as he remarks elsewhere, 'the external porch, too, is insignificant, so that one is totally

[1] Tod says this cell is dedicated to Bhawáni (*Travels*, p. 106).

[2] *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, vol. ii. p. 237.

unprepared for the splendour of the interior; but I do not know anything in architecture so startling as the effect when the door is opened and the interior bursts on the astonished traveller.'

'Facing the entrance is a square building supported by pillars, and containing nine statues of elephants, each a single block of white marble, about four feet in height. On each of them is (or rather was, for the Mogra, or Mughal iconoclast has been at work here) a male figure seated on a rich howdah beside the Mahaut.' They represented the Seth, or merchant, Vimalasáh, and his family, going in procession to the temple. He, however, having been carried off, an equestrian statue of him has been placed in the doorway,—'a most painful specimen of modern art, made of stucco, and painted in a style that a sign-painter in England would be ashamed of.'

In Vastupála's temple a procession similar to this, with an elaborately-carved spire resembling the later forms of the Buddhist *dahgoba* in the centre, occupies the place of the cells behind the shrine in that of Vimalasáh. 'It is separated from the court by a pierced screen of open tracery, the only one,' so far as Mr. Fergusson knows, 'of that age,—a little rude and heavy, it must be confessed, but still a fine work of its kind. Behind it are ten elephants of very exquisite workmanship, and with rich trappings sculptured with the most exquisite precision. The "Mogra Rájá" has, however, carried off the riders. In this case, however, the loss is not so great, as behind each elephant is a niche containing statues in alto-relievo of those who were, or were to be, mounted on them. There are Vastupála, with his one wife; Tejahpála, with two; and their uncle, who seems to have been blessed with three—in short, the whole family party. The men are fine-looking fellows, all with long, flowing beards; the ladies are generally sharp-visaged, sour-looking dames' (Fergusson's *Pictorial Illustrations of Architecture in Hindustán*, p. 40).

The Temple of Vastupála and Tejahpála stands on the north of Vimalasáh's, and is entered from the court between them by a stair near the west end of the enclosure. It contains several inscriptions in Sanskrit (*Asiatic Researches*, vol. xvi. pp. 284-330; *Ind. Antiquary*, vol. ii. pp. 255 ff.). Over the doors of the cells, or *kulikás*, which surround the central fane, are 46 inscriptions recording their construction, and grants for the worship of the different images they enshrine, chiefly by Tejahpála and his kindred, and dated from Sam. 1287 to 1293 (A.D. 1230 to 1236). The brothers Vastupála and Tejahpála were Porwálá Banias of Anahilapattan, who served as chief ministers to Víra Dhavala, the first of the Vághelá dynasty of Guzerat.

The *mandap*, or portico, forms one of the distinguishing characteristics of the Jain style of architecture, as well as its most beautiful feature. In most existing instances it is surmounted by a dome, resting on

eight columns out of twelve, which form a square with four columns on each side, including the corners. These pillars terminate in the usual bracket capital of the East. 'Upon this,' as Mr. Fergusson describes it, 'an upper dwarf column or attic, if it may be so called, is placed to give them additional height; and on these upper columns rest the great beams or architraves which support the dome. As, however, the long bearing is weak, at least in appearance, the weight is relieved by the curious angular strut or truss of white marble, which, springing from the lower capital, seems to support the middle of the beam.' The arch formed by the two struts between each pair of columns is known as a *torana*. 'That this last feature is derived from some wooden or carpentry original,' continues Mr. Fergusson, 'can, I think, scarcely be doubted.' On the octagon formed by the massive marble architraves across the heads of the pillars rests the dome, also of white marble, finished with a delicacy of detail and a richness and an appropriateness of ornament unrivalled by any similar example either in India or Europe. A single block over the angles of the octagon suffices to introduce the circle. Above the second ornamented course, sixteen brackets are inserted, the lower sides of each being wrought into a sitting figure with four or six arms. The brackets support statues, male and female; and the spaces between are wrought with elaborate ornamentation. Above their heads is a circle of twenty-four pendants, and inside this a sort of scolloped pattern, whilst in the centre is a pendant of the most exquisite beauty. Of the ornaments, Mr. Fergusson remarks that 'those introduced by the Gothic architects in Henry the Seventh's chapel at Westminster, or at Oxford, are coarse and clumsy in comparison.' (For a further account of the Abu temples, with drawings and photographs, see Mr. Fergusson's valuable works, the *History of Indian Architecture* and *Pictorial Illustrations of Architecture in Hindustán*; also a paper on Mount Abu in the *Indian Antiquary*, vol. ii. pp. 249 ff., Sept. 1873.)

Achala Basanta (*Eternal Spring*).—Peak of the Assiá range, Cuttack District, Bengal; with ruins of Majhipur at foot, the ancient residence of the Hindu hill chief. Lat. 20′ 38′ N., long. 86° 16′ E.

Achandevilantan.—Town in Srivallipatúr *táluk*, Tinnevelly District, Madras. Lat. 9° 29′ N., long. 77° 42′ E.; pop. 5265; houses, 1158. Situated on the left bank of the Kayakudimuthi river.

Achanta (*Atsanta*, *Ausanta*).—Town in Narsápur *táluk*, Gódávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 36′ N., long. 81° 50′ 30″ E.; pop. 5846, mainly agricultural; houses, 1409. Formerly belonged to the Pithápuram estate.

Achenkoil (or *Kallakadeva*).—River in the Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 5′—9° 31′ 30″ N., long. 76° 25′ 15″—77° 14′ 30″ E. It rises at the foot of the Achenkoil Pass, and, after a north-westerly course for 70 miles, joins the Pámbaiyár. For most of the year

navigable by small boats to within 30 miles of its source. Chief places on the river, Pandalam and Mauvalikarai.

Achenkoil.—Village, pass, and well-known temple in Chenganúr *táluk*, Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 5′ 45″ N., long. 77° 16′ E. The pass, called on the British side Shenkotai, connects Tinnevelly District with Travancore, but, being more difficult for traffic than the Ariankáru road, is less used. The shrine is sacred to Shasta, one of the manifestations of Siva. It lies in an exceedingly wild part of the hills.

Achintpurni Hills, Punjab.—*See* CHINTPURNI.

Achipur (*Atcheepore*).—Village in the District of the 24 Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 27′ 5″ N., long. 88° 10′ 16″ E. Telegraph station on Húglí river a few miles below Baj-baj (Budge-Budge). Movements of ships passing Achipur (up or down) are telegraphed to Calcutta, and published several times each day in the *Telegraph Gazette*.

Achre.—Port in the Málwan Subdivision, Ratnágiri District, Bombay. Lat. 16° 13′ 35″ N., long. 73° 29′ 50″ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £1680; imports, £2243.

Adalpur.—Government town in Rohri Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 27° 56′ N., long. 69° 21′ 15″ E. Founded about 1456 A.D. Pop. 1177—including Muhammadans, 778, chiefly Kalwárs; Hindus, 359, nearly all of Bania caste.

Adam-jo-Tando (or *Tando Adam*).—Municipality in Hála Deputy Collectorate, Hyderabad District, Sind. Founded about 1800 A.D. Lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 68° 41′ 15″ E. Pop. 3457—Hindus, 2109, principally Lohános and Punjabis; Muhammadans, 1174, chiefly Khaskelis, Súmras, and Memons. Trade in silk, cotton, etc. Yearly amount, £4000, besides transit trade of £6500. Municipal revenue for 1873-74, £550, or 3s. 2d. per head. Subordinate Judge's Court, and post office.

Adampur.—Large village in Jullundur (Jalandhar) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 26′ N., long. 75° 45′ 15″ E. Forms, together with the village of Sagran, a third-class municipal union. Joint pop. (1868), 3269; municipal revenue in 1875-76, £106; incidence of municipal taxation, 7¾d. per head of pop. within municipal limits.

Adam's Bridge.—A ridge of sand about 30 miles in length, stretching from N.W. to S.E. from the island of Rámeswaram off the Indian coast, to the island of Manaar off Ceylon, and so nearly closing the northern end of the Gulf of Manaar. Lat. 9° 5′—9° 12′ 30″ N., long. 79° 22′ 30″—80° E. At high tide, three or four feet of water cover the ridge in places. In the Rámáyana, Ráma is said to have used this natural causeway for the passage of his army when invading Lanká (Ceylon).

Addanki (*Ardinghy*).—Town in Ongole *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 15° 48′ 42″ N., long. 80° 0′ 52″ E. Pop. 5649; houses,

1021. Situated on the Gundlakamma river, and on the main road from Nellore to Hyderabad, 26 miles north of Ongole. Being the centre of an extensive pulse-growing and cattle-breeding tract, it has a large trade in gram, and its cattle-shows are of great local importance. The temple of Singavakondu and the ruined fort of Hari Palakudu in the neighbourhood possess some archæological interest. The deputy *tahsíldár* holds his court here. Post office, travellers' bungalow.

Adegaon.—Estate (*zamíndári*) in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces, formerly a portion of the Harai chiefship. Lat. 22° 37′ N., long. 79° 16′ E. Mainly jungle and hill, but on the eastern side well cultivated in parts. It contains 89 villages.

Aden.—Peninsula, isthmus, and fortified town, under the Government of Bombay, jutting out from the south coast of Yemen Province, Arabia Felix. The British territory comprises the peninsula, and extends to the Khor Maksar creek, two miles north of the defensive works across the isthmus; the Isle of Sirah; and the peninsula of Jebel Ihsán, or Little Aden, purchased in 1868. Lat. 12° 45′ N., long. 45° 4′ E.; area, 35 square miles; pop. (1872), 22,722, including garrison of 3433. The inhabited peninsula is an irregular oval, 15 miles in circumference, with a diameter of 3 to 5 miles, connected with the continent by a neck of land 1350 yards broad, but at one place nearly covered at high spring tides. The causeway and aqueduct, however, are always above, although at certain seasons just above, water. Aden consists of a huge crater, walled round by precipices, the highest peak being 1775 feet above the sea. Rugged spurs, with valleys between, radiate from the centre. A great gap in the circumference of the crater has been rent on its sea face opposite the fortified island of Sirah by some later volcanic disturbance. Lavas, brown, grey, and dark green, compact, schistose, and spongy; breccias; and tufas, form the materials of this volcanic fortress; with occasional crystals of augite, sanidin, small seams of obsidian, chalcedony in the rock cavities, gypsum, and large quantities of pumice stone. Four thousand tons of pumice were exported to Bombay in 1876. The scanty vegetation resembles that of Arabia Petrea, and consists only of 94 species; the more arid forms of the Dipterygium glaucum, Caparidiceæ, Risida amblyocarpa, Cassia pubescens, Acacia eburnea and Euphorbiaceæ, predominating. The harbour, Bandar Tawayih, lies between the two peninsulas of Aden and Jebel Ihsán, extends 8 miles from east to west by 4 from north to south, and is divided into two bays by a spit of land. Depth across entrance, 4½ to 5 fathoms, with 10 to 12 fathoms two miles outside; bottom, sand and mud. Lightship visible 10 miles. Large vessels lie off Steamer Point.

History.—Aden formed part of Yemen under the ancient Himyarite kings. It has been identified with the Eden of Ezekiel xxvii. 23, whose

merchants traded 'in all sorts, in blue clothes, and broidered work, in chests of rich apparel, bound with cords, and made of cedar.' Aden, the 'Αραβία εὐδαίμων of the Periplus, is mentioned as 'Αδάνη, one of the places where churches were erected by the Christian embassy sent forth by the Emperor Constantius, 342 A.D. Its position rendered it an *entrepôt* of ancient commerce between the provinces of the Roman empire and the East. About 525 A.D., Yemen, with Aden, fell to the Abyssinians, who, at the request of the Emperor Justin, sent an army to revenge the persecution of the Christians by the reigning Himyarite dynasty. In 575 the Abyssinians were ousted by the Persians. Anarchy and bloodshed followed. The rising Muhammadan power reached Aden ten years after the Hijirah. It became subject successively to the Umayyah Caliphs, the Abbassides (749 A.D.), and the Karámite Caliphs (905), until the period of Yemen independence under its own Imáms (932 A.D.). Aden continued in the early centuries of Islam to be a place of flourishing commerce. It carried on a direct trade with India and China on the east, and with Egypt (and so indirectly with Europe) on the west. In 1038 Aden was captured by the Chief of Láhej, and remained under his successors till 1137. During the next three centuries it was frequently taken and retaken by the conflicting powers in the south of Arabia. About the year 1500 the Yemen Imám then in possession constructed the aqueduct of 9 miles from Bír Mahait into Aden, the ruins of which exist at this day. In 1503 Aden was visited by Ludovico di Varthema; ten years later it was attacked by the Portuguese, under Albuquerque, who had been charged by King Emmanuel to effect its capture. His expedition left India on the 18th February 1513, with 20 ships and 2500 sailors, and reached Aden on Easter eve. The assault was delivered on Easter Sunday. An outwork with 39 guns fell to the Portuguese; but, after a four days' bloody siege, Albuquerque was repulsed with great slaughter, and had to content himself with burning the vessels in the harbour and cannonading the town. In 1516 the Mameluke Sultán of Egypt failed in a similar attack. Later in that year, the fortress was offered to the Portuguese under Lopo Soares d'Albergaria; but the defences having been meanwhile repaired by the native governor, it was not delivered up. About 1517 Selim I., Sultán of Turkey, having overthrown the Mameluke power in Egypt, resolved to seize Aden as a harbour whence all the Turkish expeditions against the Portuguese in the East and towards India might emanate. This project was carried out in August 1538 by an expedition sent forth by his son, Solyman the Magnificent, under the admiral Ráis Suláimán. The Turkish sailors were conveyed on shore, lying on beds as if sick; and the governor was invited on board the Turkish fleet, where he was treacherously seized and hanged. The Turks strengthened the place by 100 pieces of artillery and a garrison of 500 men. For a time

Aden, with the whole coast of Arabia, remained under the power of Solyman the Magnificent. Before 1551 the townsmen had rebelled and handed the place over to the Portuguese, from whom, however, it was retaken in that year by the Capidan of Egypt, and still more strongly fortified. In 1609 Aden was visited by the East India Company's ship *Ascension*, the captain being well received, and then thrown into prison until the governor had got as much as he could out of the ship. Next year, Admiral Sir Henry Middleton also visited Aden, and one of his ships being left behind, a similar act of treachery was repeated. About 1614, Van den Brock arrived on behalf of the Dutch East India Company, was, as usual, well received, but obtained a hint that he had better leave, and returned unsuccessful to India. In 1618, by the desire of Sir Thomas Roe, British Ambassador to the Emperor of India, we received permission to establish a factory at Mokha. In 1630 the Turks were compelled to evacuate Yemen, and Aden passed again to the native Imáms of that province. In 1708 the French visited the port, and in 1735 it was seized by the Abdáli Sultán of Láhej. During the next seventy years it formed the subject of constant struggles among various Arabian claimants. In 1802 Sir Home Popham concluded a treaty of friendship and commerce with the chief; and in 1829 the Court of Directors thought of making it a coaling station, but abandoned the idea owing to the difficulty of procuring labour. Aden was attacked by the Turkchi Bilmas in 1833, and sacked by the Fadhlis in 1836. The chief soon afterwards committed an outrage on the passengers and crew of a British buggalow wrecked in the neighbourhood; and in January 1838, Captain Haines, on behalf of the Government of Bombay, demanded restitution. It was arranged that the peninsula should be ceded for a consideration to the British. But various acts of treachery supervened, and it was captured in January 1839 by H.M. steamer *Volage*, 28 guns, and *Cruizer*, 10 guns, with 300 European and 400 native troops under Major Baillie—the first accession of territory in the reign of Queen Victoria. Captain Haines thus described its condition when it passed into British hands: 'The little village (formerly the great city) of Aden is now reduced to the most exigent condition of poverty and neglect. In the reign of Constantine this town possessed unrivalled celebrity for its impenetrable fortifications, its flourishing commerce, and the glorious haven it offered to vessels from all quarters of the globe. But how lamentable is the present contrast! With scarce a vestige of its former proud superiority, the traveller values it only for its capabilities, and regrets the barbarous cupidity of that government under whose injudicious management it has fallen so low' (*MS. Journal*, pp. 44, 49).

Aden under British Rule.—A stipend of 541 German crowns was assigned to the Sultán during his good behaviour. But the Abdáli

proved fickle, and in three attacks, the last in 1841, he was repelled with heavy loss. In 1844 he implored forgiveness, and his stipend was restored. In 1846, a fanatic preached a *jihád* among the neighbouring tribes, but was routed. Occasional outrages in the neighbourhood, such as atrocities on boats' crews and plunderings, have from time to time disturbed the peace; but each has been very promptly checked. The adjacent peninsula of Jebel Ihsán, Little Aden, was obtained by purchase in 1868; an advance of the Turkish troops on the Láhej territory took place in 1872, but was withdrawn in consequence of representations made by Her Majesty's Government to the Porte. Perim, a volcanic island in the Straits of Babel-Mandeb, 1½ miles from the Arabian, and 11 miles from the African coast, had been visited by Albuquerque in 1513, taken possession of by the East India Company in 1799, and finally reoccupied as an outpost of Aden in 1857. The trade and population of Aden have rapidly advanced under British rule. In 1839, the inhabitants numbered 6000, exclusive of the military; 15,000 in 1842; 17,000 in 1856; and 19,289 in 1872. The confined limits of the place seem to render improbable any further large increase. Exclusive of the garrison and camp followers (3433), the European residents number 208; Africans, 5346; natives of India and Burmah, 5024; other Asiatics, 8566. The Pársís (121), Jews (1445), and Hindus (851) have most of the trade in their hands. The Somális (over 5000), from the African coast, and the Arabs (8241) do the hard, dirty labour of the port. There are also a few Arab merchants of substance. Many of the Somális and Arabs have no homes, but find their meals at the cook-shops, and sleep in the coffee-houses or in the open air. The food of the whole population, civil and military, is imported, Aden and the adjacent country producing not a blade of grain. Rice comes from Calcutta, Bombay, and Malabar; *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bajrá* (Panicum miliaceum), and Indian corn (Zea mayz) are carried on camels from the interior. Coarse grass and the straw of *joár* and *bájra* are brought for the horses and camels from the Láhej and Fadhli Districts in the neighbourhood. The people have an untidy and makeshift air, which contrasts with the personal cleanliness of an Indian population. This arises partly from the scarcity of water, partly from the temporary nature of their residence and out-of-door life. They earn high wages in the various employments incident to a busy *entrepôt* and port of transhipment. Domestic servants receive £1, 10s. to £3 per mensem; grooms, £1; boatmen, messengers, etc., £1 to £1, 10s. These classes also get 3 gallons of water per day, besides their wages. Porters and day-labourers earn from 15s. upwards, according to their industry. The cost of living is high.

The Trade of Aden has immensely developed under British rule. From 1839 to 1850, customs dues were levied as in India. In 1850

the Government of India declared Aden a free port, and thus attracted to it much of the valuable trade between Arabia and Africa, formerly monopolized by Mokha and Hodáida. No customs dues are now taken, except a transhipment fee of £1 per chest on opium levied under Act vi. of 1873. The average value of imports and exports during the seven years preceding the opening of the port in 1850 was £187,079; during the next seven years it was £602,820, besides inland traffic. During the next seven years ending 1864-65, the exports and imports averaged £1,131,589; in 1870 they had reached £1,747,543. The opening of the Suez Canal has nearly doubled the trade of Aden, and in 1876-77 it amounted to £3,215,156 (sea and land combined); or, including estimated value of transhipment trade, £4,206,285. During the first thirty-six years of British rule in Aden, therefore, the population more than trebled itself, and the trade rose from under £100,000 per annum to 4¼ millions, or over forty-fold. Aden now forms not only the great seat of the Arabian trade with Africa, but an *entrepôt* and place of transhipment for an ever increasing European and Asiatic commerce.

The Administration is conducted by a Political Resident, two Assistant Residents, and a Cantonment Magistrate. The Resident is also Military Commandant, and is usually an officer selected from the Bombay army, as are also his assistants. The police number 141, including two European inspectors. Daily average number of prisoners (1876) in jail, 75; 50 per cent. of the offences being committed by the half-savage African Somális. The number of civil suits disposed of in 1876 was 2796, affecting £14,291 worth of property. Aden is politically subject to the Government of Bombay, and for legal purposes is held to be a part of India, civil and criminal justice being regulated by a special Act of the Indian Legislature. Average annual number of letters despatched (1871-76), 98,651; newspapers, 21,897; books, 2533; parcels, 56. Average annual number received—letters, 97,506; papers, 51,855; books, 5958; parcels, 144. The municipal administration is usually conducted by the Second Assistant Resident, and defrayed from a 'Municipal Fund' raised by local taxes and rates, amounting for 1875-76 to £5788. 'The Good Shepherd Convent,' under a Mother Superior and Roman Catholic clergyman, gives shelter to emancipated slave-girls.

Climate and Water Supply.—The average temperature of Aden is 83° F. in the shade, the mean monthly range being from 70° in January to 93° in September, with variations up to (and sometimes exceeding) 102°. The lulls between the monsoons in May and in September are specially oppressive. The mortality among the Europeans, although greatly increased by sick or dying men from the passengers and crews of ships, only amounts to 32 per thousand, and

Aden ranks as a rather healthy station for troops. During the eleven years preceding 1871, the mean annual rainfall was 2·45 inches, the largest rainfall in any of those years being 8·03 inches. In 1871 only $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch fell, and during the four years 1871-74 the average fall was $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The Aden rainfall may be said to vary from $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch to $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches, with an irregular average of about 3 inches. Since the restoration of the tanks commenced in 1856, they have only been filled three times, in May 1866, May 1870, and September 1877. The water supply forms, perhaps, the most important problem at Aden. It is obtained from four sources—wells, the aqueduct, tanks or reservoirs, and condensers. The following description is abridged from a report by Captain J. M. Hunter, First Assistant Resident, dated 1877:—

(1.) *Wells.*—These may be divided into two classes, within and without British limits.

Water of good quality is found at the head of the valleys within the crater and to the west of the town, where wells are very numerous; they are sunk in the solid rock to the depth of from 120 to 190 feet; in the best the water stands at a depth of 70 feet below sea level. The sweetest is the Banian Well, situated near the Khussaf Valley; it yields a daily average of 2500 gallons; the temperature of the water is 102° Fahrenheit, the specific gravity ·999, and it contains 1·16 of saline matter in 2000 gallons.

Outside of British limits, close to the village of Shaikh Othmán, and on the northern side of the harbour, there is a piece of neutral ground, nominally British property, and called the Hiswah, where the bed of a mountain torrent meets the sea. After very heavy rains on the neighbouring hills, the flood occasionally empties itself into the harbour by this outlet. From wells dug in the watercourse a limited supply of water may always be obtained. It is brought over to the southern side of the bay in boats, and it is also conveyed in leather skins on camels round by land across the isthmus into the settlement. Water of a fair quality is also obtained from wells in the village of Shaikh Othmán, and is carried into Aden by land on camels. During the hot season these Hiswah and Shaikh Othmán wells yield no inconsiderable portion of the quantity of water used by the civil population, as may be gathered from the fact that in the year 1875-76, 71,910 camel-loads of water, or upwards of 3,500,000 gallons, passed the barrier gate.

(2.) *Aqueduct.*—In the year 1867 the British Government entered into a convention with the Sultán of Láhej, by which they obtained permission to construct an aqueduct from two of the best wells in the village of Shaikh Othmán, seven miles distant. The water is received inside the fortifications into large reserve tanks, and it is thence distributed to the troops and establishments, and also to the public in

limited quantities, at one rupee per 100 gallons. This water is of an indifferent quality, and is only fit for the purposes of ablution. The Sultán of Láhej receives half the profits realized by the sale of the aqueduct water, his share being seldom less than 1200 rupees per mensem, and he is therefore pecuniarily interested to a considerable extent in the protection and preservation of this source of supply. The aqueduct cost 296,933 rupees to construct, and the original intention was to extend the work up to Darab, eight miles farther inland. This latter place is situated on the bank of the torrent, the outlet of which, on the northern side of the harbour, has been already referred to, and the object was to take advantage of the rainfall in the months of May, June, July, August, and September, on the hills some twenty miles farther inland, before the thirsty sands had time to drink it up.

(3.) *Tanks or Reservoirs* (see Playfair's *History of Yemen*).—The expediency of constructing reservoirs in which to store rain-water was recognised in Arabia at a very early date. They are generally found in localities devoid of springs and dependent on the winter rains for a supply of water during the summer months. The most remarkable instance on record is the great dam of Mareb, assigned to 1700 B.C. (?). Travellers who have penetrated into Yemen describe many similar works in the mountainous districts, while others exist in the islands of Sáid-ud-dín, near Zaila; in Kotto in the Bay of Amphilla; and in Dhalak Island, near Massowah.

Those in Aden are about fifty in number, and if entirely cleared out would have an aggregate capacity of nearly thirty million imperial gallons.

There is no trustworthy record of the construction of these reservoirs, but they are supposed to have been commenced at the time of the second Persian invasion of Yemen, circ. 600 A.D. They cannot be attributed to the Turks. The Venetian officer who described the expedition of the Ráis Suláimán in 1538, when Aden was first conquered by the Turkish nation, says: 'They (the inhabitants of Aden) have none but rain-water, which is preserved in cisterns and pits 100 fathoms deep.' Ibn Batuta also mentions the tanks as the source of the Aden water supply in his day (circ. 1330). Mr. Salt, who visited Aden in 1809, describes the tanks as they then existed:—'Amongst the ruins some fine remains of ancient splendour are to be met with, but they only serve to cast a deeper shade over the devastation of the scene. The most remarkable of these reservoirs consists of a line of cisterns situated on the north-west side of the town, three of which are fully eighty feet wide and proportionately deep, all excavated out of the solid rock, and lined with a thick coat of fine stucco, which externally bears a strong resemblance to marble. A broad aqueduct may still be traced which formerly conducted the water to these cisterns from a deep ravine in

the mountain above; higher up is another, still entire, which at the time we visited it was partly filled with water.'

When Captain Haines, then engaged in the survey of the Arabian coast, visited Aden in 1835, some of the reservoirs appear to still have been in a tolerably perfect state. Besides the tanks built high up on the hills, several large ones were traceable round the town. But the necessary steps not having been taken to preserve them from further destruction, they became filled with *débris* washed down from the hills by the rain. The people of the town carried away the stones for building purposes; and, with the exception of a very few which could not be easily destroyed or concealed, all trace of them was lost, save where a fragment of plaster appearing above the ground indicated the supposed position of a reservoir, believed to be ruined beyond the possibility of repair.

In 1856, the restoration of these magnificent public works was commenced, and thirteen have been completed, capable of holding 7,718,630 gallons of water. It is almost impossible to give such a description of these extraordinary walled excavations as would enable one who has not seen to thoroughly understand them. Trees have now been planted in their vicinity and gardens laid out, making the only green spot in the Settlement. The Shum-Shum (*Shamshán*) Hills, which form the wall of the crater, are nearly circular; on the western side the rainfall rushes precipitously to the sea down a number of long narrow valleys unconnected with each other; on the interior or eastern side, the hills are quite as abrupt, but the descent is broken by a large tableland occurring midway between the summit and the sea level, which occupies about one-fourth of the entire superficies of Aden. The plateau is intersected by numerous ravines, nearly all of them converging into one valley, which thus receives a large proportion of the drainage of the peninsula. The steepness of the hills, the hardness of the rocks, and the scantiness of the soil upon them, combine to prevent absorption; and thus a very moderate fall of rain suffices to send down the valley a stupendous torrent of water, which, before reaching the sea, not unfrequently attains the proportions of a river. To collect and store this water the reservoirs have been constructed. They are fantastic in shape. Some are formed by a dyke built across the gorge of a valley; in others, the soil in front of a re-entering angle on the hill has been removed, and a salient angle or curve of masonry built in front of it; while every feature of the adjacent rocks has been taken advantage of and connected by small aqueducts, to ensure that no water is lost. The overflow of one tank has been conducted into the succeeding one, and thus a complete chain has been formed. In 1857, when only a very small proportion of the whole had been repaired, more water was collected from a single fall of rain on the 23d October

than the whole of the wells yield during an entire year. It is manifest, however, that a large city could never have entirely depended on this precarious source of supply; and the Sovereign of Yemen, Abdul-Wahâb, towards the close of the 15th century, constructed an aqueduct to convey the water of the Bír Mahait (Playfair says 'Bir Hameed') into Aden. The ruins of this magnificent public work exist to the present day.

The restoration of the tanks, including repairs, had cost about £37,000 up to the 31st March 1874. When there is water in the tanks, the condenser in the crater, where the larger portion of the troops are stationed, is not worked. The water collected, besides being issued to the troops, is also sold to the public at one rupee per 100 gallons. But when the rain fails and the tanks are exhausted, a skin containing 5 gallons of brackish water has at times sold for 8 *ánás*, or nearly one shilling.

(4.) *Condensers.*—Shortly before the opening of the Suez Canal, Government foresaw the necessity of obtaining a plentiful and unfailing supply of good water, and in 1867 several condensers, on the most approved principle, were ordered from England. A brisk trade in distilled water sprang up; and six condensers are now worked, by the Government and private companies, capable of yielding 46,600 gallons per diem, or a sufficient supply for 9320 Europeans at 5 gallons per head. In 1876, condensed water was sold at the following rates, including carriage:—

Isthmus, ...	Rs. 3. 4. 6	(say 6s. 7d.)	per 100 gallons.
Steamer Point, . . .	3. 0. 9	,, (6s. 1d.)	ditto.
Camp, ...	2. 10. 9	,, (5s. 4d.)	ditto.

The Fortifications of Aden are now of a character commensurate with the importance of the place. But details regarding them would be unsuitable in this work.

Adevi Avulapalli.—Mountain, Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 13° 28′ 27″ N., long. 78° 26′ 35″ E.

Adina Masjid.—Celebrated ruined mosque in Panduah town, Maldah District, Bengal. One of the most remarkable surviving specimens of Pathán architecture.—*See* PANDUAH.

Adjai (*Ajaya*, 'The Invincible').—A river of Bengal, rises on the boundary between the Districts of Hazáribágh and the Santál Parganás, and, after draining the south-western portion of the latter District, follows a winding south-easterly course, forming the boundary line between Bardwán and Bírbhúm as far as the village of Bhediá, where it assumes a due easterly direction until it joins the Bhágirathí just north of Kátwá. During the rains the river is sometimes navigable by cargo boats as far as the point where it enters Bardwán District from the

Santál Parganás; at other seasons it is fordable throughout its course. There is a ferry at Sankhái on the road from Bardwán to Bírbhúm The Bhágirathí and the Adjai frequently overflow their banks, causing considerable damage to the crops on the neighbouring lands. To protect the country to some extent from these floods, embankments of an aggregate length of 22 miles have been raised at three different points on the right bank of the Adjai, and an embankment 3 miles long has also been constructed on the left bank. Principal tributaries:—In Hazáribágh, the Patro and the Jáinti; in Bírbhúm, the Hinglá *nadí;* and in Bardwán, the Tuní and Kunur *nadís*.

Adjunta.—*See* AJANTA.

Adoni.—*Táluk*, Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 38′ N., long. 77° 20′ E.; area, 515,200 acres, of which 378,469 are under cultivation; rice or 'wet' crops occupy only 6777 acres, the remainder being under 'dry' cultivation; pop. (1871), 179,448, or 222 to the square mile, 12 per cent. of the whole being Muhammadans. The language spoken is a mixture of Telegu and Canarese; Hindustání is used by the Musalmáns. The revenue for 1870-71 amounted to £38,662, including—land revenue, £23,180; *abkári*, £10,812; salt, £159; stamps, £353; road fund, £1247; miscellaneous, £1408. The assessment on irrigated land (*munia*) varies from 2s. to £1, 4s. od. per acre, and on dry land (*punjah*) from 3d. to 6s. per acre. An additional rate of 10s. per acre is charged on the lands watered by the Tungabhadra channel. This channel irrigates an area of 965 acres, assessed at £937, and from which a second crop is always obtained. The only important tanks in the *táluk* are those at Chikka, Tumbalum, and Halhervi, which together irrigate 1342 acres, assessed at £815. Among the non-agricultural population, weaving forms the chief occupation, the Adoni fabrics being highly thought of throughout the Presidency. There is a large export of silk and cotton cloths. The chief towns are Adoni, Kosgu, Kavutal, Nagaldinna, and Emmiganur; five others, Hatsahalli, Halhervi, Kotakal, Gúdihal, Harisamudram, and Mandaveram, have each over 2000 inhabitants. No other *táluk* in the District has so many large places. The Madras railway passes through the *táluk*, and there is one metalled road, the highway from Bellary to Secunderabad.

Adoni (*Adwáni*).—Municipality in the Adoni *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 37′ 30″ N., long. 77° 19′ 10″ E. The second largest town in the District, having a population of 22,732; Muhammadans, 8461; and Hindus, chiefly of the Vellálar and Kaikalúr castes, 14,241; houses, 4532. Cloths of cotton and silk (the latter made from the Collegal cocoons) and carpets constitute its chief manufactures, and occupy more than a third of the total adult male population. The municipal revenue amounted in 1875-76 to £1535, and the expenditure to £1500; the incidence of taxation being per head 1s. 4d., and

per house, 6s. 9d. Adoni is distant from Madras 307 miles, and from Bellary 64, and has been connected by rail with both since 1870, in which year a station was opened here. Good roads run to Gooty and Seragupa, while numerous country roads converging on Adoni act as feeders to the railway. The returns of local traffic on the line for 1875, give 61,656 passengers, and 20,598 tons of goods, yielding a total revenue of £25,932. Cholera used at one time to be frequently epidemic here, but, owing to recent municipal reforms in street-widening, cleansing, and sanitation, the health of the town has of late improved greatly. The fort of Adoni, now in ruins, stands upon five rocky granite hills to the north-west of the town, two of the peaks being 800 feet high. Half way up is a fine tank of drinking water. The *tahsildár* of the *táluk* holds his court here, and the town has also a dispensary, telegraph and post offices, and a jail.

Adoni, as the capital of an important frontier tract in the fertile Doáb of the Kistna and Tumbhadrá, played a conspicuous part in the intestine wars of the Deccan. Traditions allege that it was founded in 1200 B.C. by Chandra Sen, in the reign of Bhim Sinh, ruler of Bídar (Beder). Subsequently it was absorbed by the Vijayanagar Rájás; and when, in 1564, that dynasty fell by the defeat at Tálikot, Adoni became a stronghold of the Muhammadan kings of the Adil Sháhi dynasty of Bijápur and Golgonda. They added to its strength by building the lower forts and the outer walls. The revenue of the District, of which this fortress was the centre, amounted then to '6 *lakhs* and 75,900 *pagodas*,' and the military establishment consisted of 4000 horse and 8000 foot. Ferishta refers to it as 'situate on the summit of a high hill, and containing many lakes and fountains of sweet water, with princely structures.' In 1690 it was taken after a determined resistance by the generals of Aurangzeb, and included in the Súbah of Bijápur. As the central authority of Delhi declined, Bijápur was merged in the territories of the Nizám, and the fortress and province of Adoni became a family fief of a younger branch of the house. Thus in 1748 it was held by Muzaffar Jang, and on his death (1752) it descended, through the influence of M. Bussy, to his son. In 1757 it passed to Basálat Jang, the brother of the Subahdár of the Deccan, who, making it his capital, attempted to establish an independent principality. Haidar Alí twice attacked the fortress without success, and though in 1778 he defeated the Marhattás under its walls, and in the following year laid waste the country round, it did not surrender. In 1782 Basálat Jang died, and Haidar Alí soon afterwards. In 1786, Tippu, by a siege of a month, took the fort and razed its battlements. After the peace, Adoni was restored to the Nizám, and in 1799 was ceded to the English.

Adrampet (*Adrampatnam, Adivíra Rámapatnam* in Tamil: 'The

city of the great hero Rámá').—Seaport in the Pattukotta *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 20′ 10″ N., long. 79° 25′ 40″ E.; pop. 9000, largely engaged in sea fisheries and salt manufacture; houses, 1567. The sea trade is chiefly with Ceylon, whither it exports rice in exchange for *betel* and timber. Of the inland trade, fish forms an important item, being sent from the coast as far as Trichinopoly. A large (Government) salt manufacture also exists here, the salt marsh lying between the town and Point Calimere being one of the most extensive in the Presidency, and producing salt of superior quality. The average annual revenue from this salt marsh amounts to £15,000. The sharp angle of the coast immediately above it protects the port from the north-east monsoon, while Ceylon on the south-east protects it from the violence of the gales from that quarter. The Grand Trunk Road, on which it is situated, connects it with the principal coast towns, while the District road affords communication with the chief places inland. Post office, customs', and salt stations.

Adur.—The estate of a clan in Nellore District, Madras Presidency, whose chiefs enjoyed, under the police system of native rule, the privileges of 'Men Kávalgars,' *i.e.* anciently leaders of professional robber gangs, with rights of black-mail over certain clusters of villages. Under the title of 'Men Kávalgars,' they were recognised by successive rulers as a police, and were subsidized to abstain from or prevent depredations. They were under the Poligars, who were held answerable for the 'Men Kávalgars' within their limits.

Aeng.—River and town in British Burma.—*See* AN.

Afghánistán is the name applied, originally in Persian, to the mountainous region between North-Western India and Eastern Persia, of which the Afgháns are the most numerous and the predominant inhabitants. This extensive application of the term Afghánistán is scarcely older than the short-lived empire founded by Ahmad Khán in the middle of last century. The Afgháns themselves are not in the habit of using it. Their territories lie beyond British India, but some account of them will be useful to many who have to consult this book. It would be unsuitable, however, that any appearance of official authority should attach to this account of a purely foreign State. To prevent the possibility of such a misapprehension arising, the only materials here used are those already before the public. With the kind permission of Colonel Henry Yule, C.B. (the author), and of Messrs. A. & C. Black (the publishers), this article is condensed from that on Afghánistán in the ninth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, by far the ablest and most systematic account of the country yet available to the public. The following notice includes the Hazára mountains, but not that part of the Oxus basin which is now under Afghán rule, and which will be treated of separately as AFGHAN TURKISTAN.

Afghánistán forms a great quadrilateral plateau, extending from about 61° 30′ to 71° E. long., and from 27° 50′ to 35° N. lat. This territory corresponds fairly to the aggregate of the ancient provinces of *Aria* (Herát), *Drangiana* (Seistán), the region of the *Paropamisadæ* (Kábul), and *Arachosia* (Kandahár), with *Gandaritis* (Pesháwar and Yúzafzái). Though the last territory belongs ethnically to Afghánistán, an important part of it now forms the British District of Pesháwar, whilst the remainder acknowledges no master.

Boundaries.—The boundaries of Afghánistán can be stated here only in rough *geographical* outline, and from the area thus broadly defined many portions will have to be deducted as occupied by independent, or semi-independent, States and tribes. Subject to this understanding, the boundaries may be thus given :—

On the north: beginning from east, the great range of the Hindu Kush, a western offshoot of the Himalaya, parting the Oxus basin from the Afghán basins of the Kábul river and the Helmand. From long. 68° this boundary continues westward in the prolongation of the Hindu Kush called Koh-i-Bábá. This breaks into several almost parallel branches, enclosing the valleys of the river of Herát and the Murgh-áb or river of Merv. The half-independent Hazára tribes stretch across these branches and down into the Oxus basin, so that it is difficult here to assign a boundary. It is assumed to continue along the range called Safed Koh or 'White Mountain,' which parts the Herát river valley from the Murgh-áb.

On the east: the eastern base of the spurs of the Sulemáni and other mountains which limit the plains on the west bank of Indus, and the lower valleys opening into them; the said plains (the 'Deraját') and lower valleys belonging to British India. North of Pesháwar District the boundary is, for a space, the Indus; thereafter the limit lies in unknown country, between the Afghán and Dard tribes.

On the south: the eastern part of the boundary, occupied by practically independent tribes, Afghán and Baluch, is hard to define, having no marked natural landmarks. But from the Shál territory (long. 67°), belonging to the Baluch State of Khelát, westward, the southern limits of the valleys of the Lorá river, and then of the Helmand, as far as the lake of Seistán in lat. 30°, complete the southern boundary. Thus the whole breadth of the Baluch country, the ancient *Gedrosia*, a dry region occupying 5 degrees of latitude, intervenes between Afghánistán and the sea.

The western boundary runs from the intersection of the lake of Seistán in lat. 30°, bending eastward, so as to exclude a part of the plain of Seistán on the eastern bank of the lake, and then crosses the lake to near the meridian of 61°. Thence it runs nearly due north, near this meridian, to a point on the Hari-Rúd, or river of Herát, about

70 miles below that city, where it encounters the spurs of the Safed Koh, which have been given as the northern boundary.

But if the limits of the entire Afghán *dominions* are taken as they at present exist, the western boundary will continue north along the Hari-Rúd to lat. 36°, and the northern boundary will run from this point along the borders of the Turkman desert, so as to include Andkhoi, up to Khoja Sáleh ferry on the Oxus. The Oxus, to its source in the Great Pamír, forms the rest of the northern boundary. These enlarged limits would embrace the remainder of the Hazára mountain tracts, and the whole of what is now called Afghán Turkistán, as well as Badakhshan with its dependencies, now tributary to the Afghán Amír.

The extreme dimensions of Afghánistán, as at first defined, will be about 600 miles from east to west, and 450 miles from north to south; and if we take the external limits of the whole Afghán dominion, the extent from north to south will be increased to 600 miles.

The whole country, excepting parts of the Kábul valley and a triangle roughly defined by the positions of Kandahár, Herát, and the Seistán Lake, has an elevation of more than 4000 feet above the sea, and vast regions lie upwards of 7000 feet.

Natural Divisions.—(1.) The Kábul basin; (2.) The lofty central part of the tableland on which stand Ghazní and Kila't-i-Ghilzái (embracing the upper valleys of ancient *Arachosia*); (3.) The upper Helmand basin; (4.) The lower Helmand basin, embracing Girishk, Kandahár, and the Afghán portion of Seistán; (5.) The basin of the Herát river; and (6.) The eastern part of the tableland, draining by streams, chiefly occasional torrents, towards the Indus.

The Kábul basin has as its northern limit the range of Hindu Kush; a name which properly applies to the lofty snow-clad crest due north of Kábul, and perhaps especially to one pass and peak. But it has been conveniently extended to the whole line of alpine watershed, stretching westward from the southern end of Pamír, and represents the Caucasus of Alexander's historians. Its peaks throughout probably rise to the region of perpetual snow, and even on most of the passes beds of snow occur at all seasons, and on some, glaciers. No precise height has been stated for any of its peaks, but the highest probably attain to at least 20,000 or 21,000 feet. The height of the Kushan Pass is estimated by Lord at 15,000 feet; all the passes, some 20 in number, are near, or over, 12,000 feet.

Rivers.—The Kábul river (the ancient *Kophes*) is the most important river of Afghánistán. It may be considered as fully formed about 30 miles east of Kábul, by the junction thereabouts (the confluence does not seem to have been fixed by any traveller) of the following streams:—(*a.*) The *Kábul* stream, rising in the Unái Pass towards the Helmand, which, after passing through the city, has been joined by the Logar

river flowing north from the skirts of the Ghilzái plateau; (*b.*) A river bringing down from the valleys Ghorband, Parwán, and Panjshír, a large part of the drainage of the Hindu Kush, and watering the fruitful plain of Dáman-i-Koh (the 'Hill-skirt'), intersected by innumerable brooks, and studded with vineyards, gardens, and fortalices. This river was formerly called *Bárán*, a name apparently obsolete, but desirable to maintain; (*c.*) The river of *Tagao*, coming down from the spurs of Hindu Kush on the Kafir borders.

About 30 miles farther east, the *Alishang* enters the Kábul on the left bank, from Laghmán, above which the *Alishang* drains western Kafiristán. Twenty miles farther, and not much beyond Jalálabad, the Kábul receives from the same side a confluent entitled, as regards length, to count as the main stream. In some older maps this bears the name of *Káma*, from a place near the confluence, and in more recent ones *Kúner*, from a district on its lower course. Higher up it is called the *river of Kashkar*, also the *Beilam*. It seems to be the *Choaspes*, and perhaps the *Malamantus* of the ancients. It rises in a small lake near the borders of Pamír, and flows in a south-west direction through the length of Kashkar or Chitral, an independent valley State, whose soil lies at a height of 6000 to 11,000 feet. The whole length of the river to its confluence with the Kábul river cannot be less than 300 miles, *i.e.* upwards of 100 miles longer than that regarded as the main stream, measured to its most remote source. The *Landai*, an important tributary, joins near Pesháwar, bringing in the Swát (*Soastus*) and waters of Bajaur.

The basin of the Kábul river is divided by the Paghman range, an offshoot of the Hindu Kush from the Helmand. The road to Turkistán leads up to the head waters of the stream that passes Kábul, crossing for a brief space into the Helmand basin by the easy Pass of Unái (11,320 feet), and then over the Koh-i-Bába, or western extension of Hindu Kush, by the Hajjigak Passes (12,190 and 12,480 feet), to Bámián.

The most conspicuous southern limit of the Kábul basin is the Safed Koh, Spin-gar of the Afgháns ('White Mountain,' not to be confounded with the western Safed Koh already named), an alpine chain, reaching in its highest summit, Síta Rám, to a height of 15,622 feet, and the eastern ramifications of which extend to the Indus at and below Attock. Among the spurs of this range are those formidable passes between Kábul and Jalálabad in which the disasters of 1841-42 culminated, and the famous Kháibar (Khyber) Passes between Jalálabad and Pesháwar. This southern watershed formed by the Safed Koh is so much nearer the Kábul river than that on the north, that the tributaries from its side, though numerous, are individually insignificant. The Kábul finally enters the Indus above the gorge at Attock.

The lowest ford on the Kábul river is a bad one, near Jalálabad, and only passable in the dry season. Below the Kúner confluence the river is deep and copious, crossed by ferries only, except at Nowshera, below Pesháwar, where there is usually a bridge of boats. The rapid current is unfavourable to navigation, but from Jalálabad downwards the river can float boats of 50 tons, and is often descended by rafts on inflated skins.

A marked natural division of the Kábul basin occurs near Gandámak, above Jalálabad, where a sudden descent takes effect from a minimum elevation of 5000 feet to one of only 2000. The Emperor Baber says of this:—'The moment you descend, you see quite another world. The timber is different; its grains are of another sort; its animals are of a different species; and the manners and customs of its inhabitants are of a different kind.' Burnes, on his first journey, left the wheat harvest in progress at Jalálabad, and found the crop at Gandámak, only 25 miles distant, but 3 inches above ground. Here, in truth, nature has planted one of the gates of India. The valleys of the upper basin, though still in the height of summer affected by a sun of fierce power, recall the climate and products of the finest part of temperate Europe; the region below is a chain of narrow, low, and hot plains, with climate and vegetation of an Indian character.

The remainder of the country, regarded by the Afgháns as included in Khorasán, exhibits neither the savage sublimity of the defiles of the Kábul region, the alpine forests of its higher ranges, nor its occasional nests of rich vegetation in the valleys, save in the north-east part adjoining Safed Koh, where these characters still adhere, and in some exceptional localities, such as the valley of Herát, which is matchless in richness of cultivation. The characteristics of this Khorasán country are elevated plateaux of sandy or gravelly surface, broken by ranges of rocky hills, and often expanding into wide spaces of arid waste, which terminate to the south-west in a regular desert of shifting sand. Even in cultivated parts there is a singular absence of trees, and when the crops are not visible, the Khorasán landscape has an aspect of great desolation and emptiness. Natural wood, however, is found in some parts of West Afghánistán, as in the almost tropical delta of the Helmand, in the Ghúr territory, and on the Herát river below Herát. The trees appear to be for the most part mimosas, tamarisks, and the like, with little body of foliage.

Next to the Kábul river in importance, and probably much exceeding it in volume as it certainly does in length, is the Helmand (*Etymander*), the only considerable river in its latitude from the Tigris to the Indus. The Helmand has its highest sources in the Koh-i-Bába and Paghman hills, between Kábul and Bámián. Its succeeding course is through the least-known tract of Afghánistán, chiefly occupied by Hazáras;

indeed, for a length of nearly 300 miles down to Girishk, where the Helmand is crossed by the principal route from Herát to Kandahár, we know no published account of the river, though surveys of the lower half exist, down to 40 miles above Girishk. The character of the Helmand is said to be that of a mountain river, flowing between scarped rocks, and obstructed by enormous boulders. At that point it enters on a flat country, and extends over a gravelly bed. Here, also, it begins to be used in irrigation. Forty-five miles below Girishk the Helmand receives its greatest tributary, the Arghand-áb, flowing west of Kandahár from the high Ghilzái country; but which is now absorbed before reaching the former. The Helmand here becomes a very considerable river, said to have a width of 300 or 400 yards, and a depth of 9 to 12 feet. But this cannot be the case at all seasons, as fords occur at intervals as far down as Púlalik, 100 miles from the mouth. The desert draws near the left bank in the lower course, and throughout its last 150 miles the moving sands approach within 1¼ miles. The vegetation on the banks is here of a luxuriant, tropical character. The whole of the lower valley seems to have been once the seat of a prosperous population, and there is still a good deal of cultivation for 100 miles below Girishk. Even this, however, is much fallen off, and lower down still more so, owing to disorders and excessive insecurity.

The course of the Helmand is more or less south-west from its source, till in Seistán it approaches meridian 62°, when it runs nearly north, and so flows on for 70 or 80 miles, till it falls into the lake of Seistán by various mouths. The whole length of the river, measured as before, is about 615 miles. Ferrier considers that it has water enough for navigation at all seasons, from Girishk downwards. At present boats are rarely seen, and those in use are very clumsy; rafts are employed for crossing. Minor streams of Afghánistán: The Arghand-áb, Tarnak, Lorá, Khásh-rúd, Farrah, Harút, Hari-rúd, Kurram, and Gomál.

Lakes.—As nothing is known of the lake in which the Lorá is said to end, and the greater part of the lake or swamp of Seistán is excluded from Afghánistán, there remains only the *Ab-i-Istáda*, on the Ghilzái plateau. This is about 65 miles s.s.w. of Ghazní, and stands at a height of about 7000 feet, in a site of most barren and dreary aspect, with no tree or blade of grass, and hardly a habitation in sight. It is about 44 miles in circuit, and very shallow; not more than 12 feet deep in the middle. The chief feeder is the Ghazní river. The Afgháns speak of a stream draining the lake; but this report seems ill-founded, and the saltness and bitterness of the lake argue against it. Fish entering the salt water from the Ghazní river sicken and die.

PROVINCES AND TOWNS.—The chief political divisions of Afghánistán in recent times are stated to be KABUL, JALALABAD, GHAZNI,

KANDAHAR, HERAT, and AFGHAN TURKISTAN, to which are sometimes added the command of the Ghilzáis and of the Hazáras.

There are but few other places in Afghánistán which can be called towns. The following may be noted here:—

Istálif is a town in the Koh Dáman, 20 miles N.N.W. of Kábul, which was stormed and destroyed, 29th September 1842, by a force under General M'Caskill, to punish the townspeople for the massacre of the garrison at Chárikár, and for harbouring the murderers of Burnes. The place is singularly picturesque and beautiful. The rude houses rise in terrace over terrace on the mountain-side, forming a pyramid, crowned by a shrine embosomed in a fine clump of planes. The dell below, traversed by a clear, rapid stream, both sides of which are clothed with vineyards and orchards, opens out to the great plain of the Dáman-i-Koh, rich with trees and cultivation, and dotted with turreted castles; beyond these are rocky ridges, and above all the eternal snows of the Hindu Kush. Nearly every householder has his garden with a tower, to which the families repair in the fruit season, closing their houses in the town. The town is estimated, with seven villages depending on it, to contain about 18,000 souls.

Chárikár (population, 5000) lies about 20 miles north of Istálif, at the north end of Koh Dáman, and watered by a canal from the Ghorband branch of the Bárán river. In this neighbourhood was the *Triodon*, or meeting of the three roads from Bactria, spoken of by Strabo and Pliny. It is still the seat of the customs levied on the trade with Turkistán, and also of the governor of the Kohistán or hill country of Kábul, and is a place of considerable trade with the regions to the north. During the British occupation, a Political Agent (Major Eldred Pottinger, famous in the defence of Herát) was posted here with a Gúrkha corps under Captain Codrington and Lieutenant Haughton. In the revolt of 1841, after severe fighting, they attempted to make their way to Kábul, and a great part was cut off. Pottinger, Haughton (with the loss of an arm), and only one sepoy then reached the city, though many were afterwards recovered.

Kila't-i-Ghilzái has no town, but is a fortress of some importance on the right bank of the Tarnak, on the road between Ghazní and Kandahár, 89 miles from the latter, and at a height of 5773 feet. The repulse of the Afgháns in 1842 by a sepoy garrison under Captain Craigie was one of the most brilliant feats of that war.

Girishk is also a fort rather than a town, the latter being insignificant. It is important for its position on the high road between Kandahár and Herát, commanding the ordinary passage and summer ford of the Helmand. It was held by the British from 1839 till August 1842; and for the last nine months of that period amid great difficulties, by a native garrison only, under a gallant Indian soldier, Balwant Sinh.

Farrah belongs to the Seistán basin, and stands on the river that bears its name, and on one of the main routes from Herát to Kandahár, 164 miles from the former, 236 miles from the latter. The place is enclosed by a huge earthen rampart, crowned with towers, and surrounded by a wide and deep ditch, which can be flooded, and with a covered way. It has the form of a parallelogram, running north and south, and only two gates. As a military position, it is of great importance, but it is excessively unhealthy. Though the place would easily contain 4500 houses, there were but 60 habitable when Ferrier was there in 1845, nor was there much change for the better when Colonel Pelly passed in 1858. Farrah is a place of great antiquity; it would seem to be the *Phra* of Isidore of Charax (1st century), and possibly also the *Prophthasia*, though this is perhaps to be sought in the great ruins of Pesháwarán, farther south, near Lásh. According to Ferrier, who alludes to 'ancient chronicles and traditions,' the city on the present site within the great rampart was sacked by the armies of Chinghiz, and the survivors transported to another position, one hour farther north, where there are now many ruins and bricks of immense size (a yard square), with cuneiform letters, showing that site to be greatly older than Chinghiz. The population came back to the southern position after the destruction of the mediæval city by Sháh Abbas, and the town prospered again till its bloody siege by Nádir Sháh. Since then, under constant attacks, it has declined, and in 1837 the remaining population, amounting to 6000, was carried off to Kandahár. Such are the vicissitudes of a city on this unhappy frontier.

Sabzvár, the name of which is a corruption of old Persian, *Isphizar*, 'horse-pastures,' forms another important strategic point, 93 miles from Herát and 71 miles north of Farrah, in similar decay to the latter. The present fort, which in 1845 contained a small *bázár* and 100 houses, must once have been the citadel of a large city, now represented by extensive suburbs, partly in ruins. Water is conducted from the Harut by numerous canals, which also protect the approaches.

Zarni is a town in the famous but little-explored country of Ghur, to the east of Herát, the cradle of a monarchy (the Ghurid dynasty) which supplanted the Ghaznevides, and ruled over an extensive dominion, including all Afghánistán, for several generations. Ruins abound; the town itself is small, and enclosed by a wall in decay. It lies in a pleasant valley, through which fine streams wind, said to abound with trout. The hills around are covered with trees, luxuriantly festooned with vines. The population in 1845 was about 1200, among whom Ferrier noticed some Gheber families (remarkable, if correct). The bulk of the people are *Súris* and *Taimúnis*, both apparently very old Persian tribes. The statements in this paragraph rest entirely on Ferrier's authority.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—*Minerals.*—Afghánistán is believed to be rich in minerals, but few are wrought. Small quantities of gold are taken from the streams in Laghman and the adjoining districts. Famous silver mines were formerly wrought near the head of the Panjshír valley, in Hindu Kush. Iron of excellent quality is produced in the (independent) territory of Bajáur, north-west of Peshâwar, from magnetic iron sand, and is exported. Kábul is chiefly supplied from the Permúli (or Farmúli) District, between the Upper Kurram and Gomal, where it is said to be abundant. Iron ore is most plentiful near the passes leading to Bámián, and in other parts of Hindu Kush. Copper ore from various parts of Afghánistán has been seen, but it is nowhere worked. Lead is found, *e.g.*, in Upper Bangash (Kurram District), and in the Shinwári country (among the branches of Safed Koh), and in the Kakar country. There are reported to be rich lead mines near Herát scarcely worked. Lead, with antimony, is found near the Arghand-áb, 32 miles north-west of Kila't-i-Ghilzái; in the Wardak hills, 24 miles north of Ghazní; in the Ghorband valley, north of Kábul; and in the Afridi country, near our frontier. Most of the lead used, however, comes from the Hazára country, where the ore is described as being gathered on the surface. An ancient mine of great extent and elaborate character exists at Feringal, in the Ghorband valley. Antimony is obtained in considerable quantities at Sháh-Maksúd, about 30 miles north of Kandahár. Silicate of zinc in nodular fragments comes from the Zhob District of the Kakar country. It is chiefly used by cutlers for polishing. Sulphur is said to be found at Herát, dug from the soil in small fragments, but the chief supply comes from the Hazára country, and from Pirkisri, on the confines of Seistán, where there would seem to be a crater or fumarole. Sal-ammoniac is brought from the same place. Gypsum is found in large quantities in the plain of Kandahár, being dug out in fragile coralline masses from near the surface. Coal (perhaps lignite) is said to be found in Zurmat (between the Upper Kurram and the Gomal) and near Ghazní. Nitre abounds in the soil over all the south-west of Afghánistán, and often affects the water of the *kárez* or subterranean canals.

AGRICULTURE.—The great variety of climate and elevation enriches Afghánistán with the products alike of the temperate and the tropical zones. The thermometer varies from 12° below zero of Fahr. at Ghazní in winter to 120° Fahr. at Girishk in summer. In most parts of the country there are two harvests, as in India. One of these, called by the Afgháns *bahárak*, or the spring crop, is sown in the end of autumn and reaped in summer. It consists of wheat, barley, and a variety of lentils. The other, called *páizah* or *tírmái*, the autumn crop, is sown in the end of spring and reaped in autumn. It consists of rice,

varieties of millet and sorghum, of maize, *Phaseolus mungo*, tobacco, beet, turnips, etc. The loftier regions have but one harvest. Wheat is the staple food over the greater part of the country. Rice is largely distributed, but is most abundant in Swát (independent), and best in Pesháwar (British). It is also the chief crop in Kurram. In the eastern mountainous country, *bájra* (*Holcus spicatus*) is the principal grain. Many English and Indian garden stuffs are cultivated; turnips in some places very largely, as cattle food. Sugar-cane and madder are important products, together with a great variety of melons, grapes, and apples; dried fruits, indeed, form a staple export from Afghánistán to India. Canal irrigation is employed in the Kábul valley, while in the Western Provinces the Karez, a peculiar underground aqueduct, is much resorted to.

Domestic Animals.—The camel is of a more robust and compact breed than the tall beast used in India, and is more carefully tended. The two-humped Bactrian camel is sometimes seen, but is not a native. Horses form a staple export to India. The best of these, however, are brought from Maimána and other places on the Khorasán and Turkomán frontier. The indigenous horse is the *yábú*, a stout, heavy-shouldered animal, of about 14 hands high, used chiefly for burden, but also for riding. It gets over incredible distances at an ambling shuffle, but is unfit for fast work, and cannot stand excessive heat. The breed of horses was improving rapidly under the Amír Dost Muhammad, who took much interest in it. As a rule, colts are sold and worked too young. The cows of Kandahár and Seistán give very large quantities of milk. They seem to be of the humped variety, but with the hump evanescent. Dairy produce is important in Afghán diet, especially the pressed and dried kurd called *krút* (an article and name perhaps introduced by the Mongols). There are two varieties of sheep, both having the fat tail. One bears a white fleece, the other a russet or black one. Much of the white wool is exported to Persia, and now largely to Europe by Bombay. Flocks of sheep are the main wealth of the nomad population, and mutton is the chief animal food of the people. In autumn large numbers are slaughtered, their carcases cut up, rubbed with salt, and dried in the sun. The same is done with beef and camel's flesh. The goats, generally black or parti-coloured, seem to be a degenerate variety of the shawl-goat. The climate is found to be favourable to dog-breeding. Pointers are reared in the Kohistán of Kábul and above Jalálabad—large, heavy, slow-hunting, but fine-nosed and staunch, very like the old double-nosed Spanish pointer. There are greyhounds also, but inferior in speed to second-rate English dogs. The *khandi* is another sporting dog, most useful, but of complex breed. He is often used for turning up quail and partridge to the hawk.

Industrial Products.—These are not important. Silk is produced in Kábul, Jalálabad, Kandahár, and Herát, and chiefly consumed in domestic manufactures, though the best qualities are carried to the Punjab and Bombay. Excellent carpets—soft, brilliant, and durable in colour—are made at Herát. They are usually sold in India as Persian. Excellent felts and a variety of woven goods are made from the wool of the sheep, goat, and Bactrian camel. A manufacture, of which there is now a considerable export to the Punjab for the winter clothing of our irregular troops, besides a large domestic use, is that of the *postín*, or sheepskin pelisse. The long wool remains on, and the skin is tanned yellow, with admirable softness and suppleness. Pomegranate rind is a chief material in the preparation. Rosaries are extensively made at Kandahár from a soft crystallized silicate of magnesia (chrysolite). The best are of a semi-transparent straw colour, like amber. They are largely exported, especially to Mecca.

Trade.—Practically, there are no navigable rivers in Afghánistán, nor any roads for wheeled carriages. Hence goods are carried on beasts of burden, chiefly camels, along roads which often lie through close and craggy defiles, and narrow stony valleys among bare mountains, or over waste plains. Though from time immemorial the larger part of the products of India destined for Western Asia and Europe has been exported by sea, yet at one time valuable caravans of these products, with the same destination, used to traverse the rugged Afghán roads. The great trade routes are the following:—(1) From Persia by Mesh'hed to Herát. (2) From Bokhára by Maimanah to Herát. (3) From the same quarter by Karshi, Balkh, and Khulm, to Kábul. (4) From the Punjab by Pesháwar and the Tatára or Abkhanah Passes to Kábul. (5) From the Punjab by the Gomal or Ghawalári Pass to Ghazní. (6) From Sind by the Bolan Pass to Kandahár. There is also a route from Eastern Turkistán by Chitrál or Jalálabad, or to Pesháwar by Dír; but it is doubtful how far there is any traffic at present.

Towards Sind the chief exports from or through Afghánistán are wool, horses, silk, fruit, madder, and assafœtida. The staple of local production exported from Kandahár is dried fruit. The horse trade in this direction is chiefly carried on by the Sayyids of Pishin, Kakars, Bakhtiyaris, and Baluchis. The Sayyids also do, or did, dabble largely in slave-dealing. The Hazáras furnished the largest part of the victims. Burnes' early anticipation of a large traffic in wool from the regions west of the Indus has been amply verified, for the trade has for many years been of growing importance; and in 1876-77 the shipment of wool from Sind had reached nearly 20,000,000 lbs. The importation to Sind is chiefly in the hands of Shikárpur merchants. Indeed, nearly

all the trade from southern Afghánistán is managed by Hindus. That between Mesh'hed, Herát, and Kandahár is carried on by Persians, who bring down silk, arms, turquoises, horses, carpets, etc., and take back wool, skins, and woollen fabrics. The chief imports by Pesháwar from India into Afghánistán are cotton, woollen, and silk goods; from England, coarse country cloths, sugar, and indigo, Benares brocades, gold thread and lace, scarves, leather, groceries, and drugs. The exports are raw silk and silk fabrics of Bokhára, gold and silver wire (Russian), horses, almonds and raisins, and fruits generally, furs (including dressed fox-skins and sheep-skins), and bullion.

The trade with India was thus estimated in 1876-77:—

	Exports to India.	Imports from India.	Total.
With Sind, . . .	£239,883	£81,398	£321,281
With Punjáb, . .	716,007	793,130	1,509,137
	£955,890	£874,528	£1,830,418

The Sind figures include part of the trade with Khelát which cannot be separated, but the return omits some passes, and the Bolan exports do not include the large item of wool which enters Sind farther south.

A relic of the old times of Asiatic trade has come down to our day in the habits of the Afghán traders, commonly called *Povindahs*, who spend their lives in carrying on traffic between India, Khorasán, and Bokhára, with strings of camels and ponies, banded in large armed caravans, to protect themselves as far as possible from the ever-recurring exactions on the road. Bullying, fighting, evading, or bribing, they battle their way twice a year between Bokhára and the Indus. Their summer pastures are in the highlands of Ghazní and Kila't-i-Ghilzái. In the autumn they descend the Sulemáni Passes. At the Indus they have to deposit all weapons with our officers; for once within the British frontier, they are safe. They leave their families and their camels in the Punjab, and take their goods by rail to the Gangetic cities, or by boat and steamer to Kurrachee and Bombay. Even in Assam or in distant Rangoon, the Povindah is to be seen, pre-eminent by stature and by lofty air, not less than by his rough locks and filthy clothes. In March they rejoin their families, and move up again to the Ghilzái highlands, sending on caravans anew to Kábul, Bokhára, Kandahár, and Herát, the whole returning in time to accompany the tribe down the passes in the autumn.

RACES OF AFGHANISTAN.—These may first be divided into Afghán and non-Afghán, of whom the Afghán people are predominant in numbers, power, and character. Of the Afgháns proper there are about a dozen great clans, with numerous subdivisions. Of the great clans the following are the most important:—

The *Durránis*, originally called Abdális, received the former name

from a famous clansman, Ahmad Sháh. Their country may be regarded as comprising the whole of the south and south-west of the Afghán plateau.

The *Ghilzáis* are the strongest of the Afghán clans, and perhaps the bravest. They were supreme in Afghánistán in the beginning of last century, and for a time possessed the throne of Ispahán. They occupy the high plateau north of Kandahár, and extend, roughly speaking, eastward to the Sulemáni mountains, and north to the Kábul river (though in places passing these limits), and they extend down the Kábul river to Jalálabad. On the British invasion the Ghilzáis showed a rooted hostility to the foreigner, and great fidelity to Dost Muhammad, though of a rival clan. It is remarkable that the old Arab geographers of the 10th and 11th centuries place in the Ghilzái country a people called *Khilijis*, whom they call a tribe of *Turks*, to which belonged a famous family of Delhi kings. The Ghilzáis are said to look like Turks, whilst the possibility of the identity of Khilijis and Ghilzáis is obvious, and the question touches others regarding the origin of the Afgháns. It is worthy of investigation.

The *Yusufzáis* occupy an extensive tract of hills and valleys north of Pesháwar, including part of the Pesháwar plain. Except those within our Pesháwar District, they are independent; they are noted even among Afgháns for their turbulence.

The *Kakars*, still retaining in great measure their independence, occupy a wide extent of elevated country in the south-east of Afghánistán, among the spurs of the Toba and Sulemáni mountains, bordering on the Baluch tribes. But the region is still very imperfectly known.

Of the non-Afghán population associated with the Afgháns, the *Tájiks* come first in importance and numbers. They are intermingled with the Afgháns over the country, though their chief localities are in the west. They are regarded as descendants of the original occupants of that part of the country, of the old Iranian race; they call themselves Parsiwán, and speak a dialect of Persian. They are a fine athletic people, generally fair in complexion, and assimilate in aspect, in dress, and much in manners, to the Afgháns. But they are never nomadic. They are chiefly agriculturists, while those in towns follow mechanical trades and the like, a thing which the Afghán never does. They are generally devoid of the turbulence of the Afgháns, whom they are content to regard as masters or superiors, and lead a frugal, industrious life, without aspiring to a share in the government of the country. Many, however, become soldiers in the Amír's army, and many enlist in our local Punjab regiments. They are zealous Sunnis. The Tajiks of the Dáman-i-Koh of Kábul are said to be of an exceptional, turbulent, and vindictive character.

The *Kizilbáshes* may be regarded as modern Persians, but more

strictly they are Persianized Turks, like the present royal race and predominant class in Persia. Their immigration dates only from the last century, in the time of Nádir Sháh (1737). They are chiefly to be found in towns as merchants, physicians, scribes, petty traders, etc., and are justly looked on as the more educated and superior class of the population. At Kábul they constitute the bulk of the Amír's cavalry and artillery. Many serve in our Indian regiments of irregular cavalry, and bear a character for smartness and intelligence, as well as for good riding. They are Shiás, and heretics in Afghán eyes. It is to the industry of the Parsiwáns and Kizilbáshes that the country is indebted for whatever wealth it possesses, but few of them ever attain a position which is not in some degree subservient to the Afghán.

The *Hazáras* have their stronghold and proper home in the wild mountainous country on the north-west of Afghánistán Proper, including those western extensions of the Hindu Kush to which modern geographers have often applied the ancient name of *Paropamisus*. In these their habitations range generally from a height of 5000 feet to 10,000 feet above the sea.

The Hazáras generally have features of a Mongol type, often to a degree that might be called exaggerated, and there can be little doubt that they are mainly descended from fragments of Mongol tribes who came from the east with the armies of Chinghiz Khán and his family, though other races may be represented among the tribes called Hazáras. The Hazáras generally are said by Major Leech to be called *Mughals* by the Ghilzáis; and one tribe, still bearing the specific name of Mongol, and speaking a Mongol dialect, is found near the head waters of the Murgh-áb, and also farther south on the skirts of the Ghur mountains. But it is remarkable that the Hazáras generally speak a purely Persian dialect. The Mongols of Chinghiz were divided into *tománs* (ten thousands) and *hazáras* (thousands), and it is probably in this use of the word that the origin of its present application is to be sought. The oldest occurrence of this application that M. de Khanikoff has met with is in a rescript of Ghazan Khán of Persia regarding the security of roads in Khorasán, dated A.H. 694 (A.D. 1294-95).

Though the Hazáras pay tribute to the Afghán chiefs, they never do so unless payment is enforced by arms. The country which they occupy is very extensive, embracing the upper valleys of the Arghand-áb and the Helmand, both sides of the main range of Hindu Kush, nearly as far east as the longitude of Andar-áb, the hill country of Bámián, and that at the head waters of the Balkh river, the Murgh-áb, and the Hari-Rúd, altogether an area of something like 30,000 square miles. The Hazáras are popularly accused of loose domestic morals, like the ancient *Massagetæ*. They manufacture good powder, are excellent shots, and, in spite of the nature of their country, are good riders, riding at speed down very steep declivities. They are said to have

a *jodel* like the Swiss. They are often sold as slaves, and as such are prized. During the winter many spread over Afghánistán, and even into the Punjab, in search of work. Excepting near Ghazní, where they hold some lands and villages, the position of the Hazáras found in the proper Afghán country is a menial one. They are Shiás in religion, except the Zeidnat Hazáras, occupying the old territory of Badghís, north of Herát, who are Sunnis.

Eimák is a term for a sept or section of a tribe. It has come to be applied, like the *hazára*, to certain nomadic or semi-nomadic tribes west of the Hazáras of whom we have been speaking, and immediately north of Herát. These tribes are known as 'the four Eimáks.' It is difficult in the present state of information regarding them, sometimes contradictory, to discern what is the broad distinction between the Eimáks and the Hazáras, unless it be that the Eimáks are principally of Iranian or quasi-Iranian blood, the Hazáras of Turanian. The Eimáks are also Sunnis. Part of them are subject to Persia.

Hindkis.—This name is sometimes given to people of Hindu descent scattered over Afghánistán. They are said to be of the *Kshattriya* or military caste. Occupied in commerce, they are found in most of the large villages, and in the towns form an important part of the population, doing all the banking business of the country, and holding its chief trade in their hands. They pay a high poll-tax, and are denied many privileges, but thrive notwithstanding. The *Játs* of Afghánistán doubtless belong to the same vast race as the Jats and Játs who form so large a part of the population of the territories now governed from Lahore and Karáchí (Kurrachee), and whose origin is so obscure. They are a fine athletic, dark, handsome race, considerable in numbers, but poor, and usually gaining a livelihood as farm-servants, barbers, sweepers, musicians, etc.

Baluchis.—Many of these squat among the abandoned tracts on the lower Helmand ; a fierce and savage people, professing Islám, but not observing its precepts, and holding the grossest superstitions ; *vendetta* their most stringent law ; insensible to privation, and singularly tolerant of heat ; camel-like in capacity to do without drink ; superior to the Afgháns in daring and address, which are displayed in robber raids carried into the very heart of Persia.

There remain a variety of tribes in the hill country north of the Kábul river, speaking various languages, seemingly of *Prakritic* character, and known as Kohistánis, Laghmánis, Pasháis, etc. ; apparently converted remnants of the aboriginal tribes of the Kábul basin, and more or less kindred to the still unconverted tribes of Káfiristán, to the Chitrál people, and perhaps to the Dard tribes who lie to the north of the Afghán country on the Indus.

An able officer of the staff in India (Col. Macgregor) has lately made a diligent attempt to estimate the population of Afghánistán, which he

brings to 4,901,000 souls. This includes the estimated population of Afghán Turkistán, the people of Chitrál, the Káfirs, and the independent Yusafzáis. Without Afghán Turkistán, the population would be 4,109,000, of whom nearly 2½ millions are made up of Afgháns, Patháns, and Yusafzáis.

The pastoral and agricultural stages of human development may still be seen side by side in Afghánistán. The nomad tribes roam through the wide plains of Khorasán; the agricultural sections are settled in village communities. As a race, the Afgháns are very handsome and athletic, often with fair complexion, a flowing beard generally black or brown, sometimes, though rarely, red; the features highly aquiline. The hair is shaved off from the forehead to the top of the head, the remainder at the sides being allowed to fall in large curls over the shoulders. Their step is full of resolution, their bearing proud, and apt to be rough. They are passionately fond of hawking and hunting. The women have handsome features of Jewish cast (the last trait often true also of the men); fair complexions, sometimes rosy, though usually a pale sallow; hair braided and plaited behind in two long tresses, terminating in silken tassels. They are rigidly secluded, but intrigue is frequent. In some parts of the country the engaged lover is admitted to visits of courtship analogous to old Welsh customs.

The Afgháns, inured to bloodshed from childhood, are familiar with death, audacious in attack, but easily discouraged by failure; excessively turbulent and unsubmissive to law or discipline; apparently frank and affable in manner, especially when they hope to gain some object, but capable of the grossest brutality when that hope ceases. They are unscrupulous in perjury, treacherous, vain, and insatiable, passionate in revenge, which they will satisfy at the cost of their own lives and in the most cruel manner. Nowhere is crime committed on such trifling grounds, or with such general impunity, though when it is punished the punishment is atrocious. 'Nothing,' says Sir Herbert Edwardes, 'is finer than their physique, or worse than their morale.' Elphinstone has touched his sketch with a more friendly hand.

POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS.—The men of the section (*kandi*) of a village, having come to a decision, send their representative to a council of the whole village, and these again to that of the sept (*khail*), and the appointed chiefs of the septs finally assemble as the council (*jirgah*) of the *úlús* or tribe. These meetings, in all their stages, are apt to be stormy. But when once a council has decided, implicit compliance is incumbent on the tribe, under heavy penalties, which the *máliks*, or chiefs of tribes, have the power of enforcing. Justice is administered in the towns, more or less effectively, according to Muhammadan law, by a *kázi* and *muftis*. But the unwritten code by which Afghán communities in their typical state are guided, and the maxims of which penetrate the whole nation, is the *Pukhtúnwáli*, or usage of the Patháns, a rude

system of customary law, founded on principles such as one might suppose to have prevailed before the institution of civil government. A prominent law in this code is that called *Nanawatai*, or 'entering in.' By this law, the Pathán is bound to grant any boon claimed by the person who passes his threshold and invokes its sanctions, even at the sacrifice of his own life and property. So also the Pathán is bound to feed and shelter any traveller claiming hospitality. Retaliation must be exacted by the Pathán for every injury or insult, and for the life of a kinsman. If immediate opportunity fail, a man will watch his foe for years, with the cruel purpose ever uppermost, using every treacherous artifice to entrap him. To omit such obligations, above all the vendetta, exposes the Pathán to scorn. The injuries of one generation may be avenged in the next, or even by remoter posterity. The relatives of a murdered man may, however, before the tribunal council, accept a blood price. The crimes punished by the Pathán code are such as murder without cause, refusal to go to battle, contravention of the decision of a tribal council, adultery.

The Afgháns are Muhammadans of the Sunni or orthodox body, with the exception of a few tribes, perhaps not truly Pathán, who are Shiás. They are much under the influence of their *mullahs*, especially for evil, and have a stronger feeling against the Shiá heretic than against the unbeliever, their aversion to the Persians being aggravated thereby. But to those of another faith they are more tolerant than most Muhammadans, unless when creed becomes a war-cry.

GOVERNMENT.—Afghánistán has from time to time been under one prince, but it is hardly a monarchy as we are wont to understand the term. It is rather the government of a dictator for life over a military aristocracy, and within this a congeries of small democracies. The *sardárs* govern in their respective districts, each after his own fashion; jealous, ambitious, turbulent, the sovereign can restrain them only by their divisions. There is no unity nor permanence. In war, as in peace, chiefs and soldiers are ready to pass from one service to another without scruple. The spirit of Afghán character and institutions was tersely expressed by an old man to Elphinstone, who had urged the advantages of quiet and security under a strong king: 'We are content with discord, we are content with alarms, we are content with blood, but we will never be content with a master.'

REVENUES.—The revenues of Dost Muhammad Khán were estimated in 1857 at 4,000,000 rupees, or about £400,000. This included Afghán Turkistán, but not Herát, which he did not then hold. The Herát revenue was estimated some years before (probably too low) at £80,000. In the later years of Dost Muhammad (1863), the revenue is stated to have amounted to £710,000, of which the army cost £430,000. Information on this subject is very imperfect, and not always consistent. There seems to be a tax on the produce of the soil, both in kind and in money,

and a special tax on garden ground. A house tax of about 5 rupees is paid by all who are not Patháns. The latter pay a much lighter tax under another name, and the Hindus pay the separate poll-tax (*jaziya*). Taxes are paid on horses, etc., kept, and on the sale of animals in the public market. In many parts of the country, collections are only made spasmodically by military force. The people are let alone for years, till need and opportunity arise, when an army is marched in and arrears extorted. Customs dues at Kábul and Kandahár are only 2½ per cent. nominally, but this is increased a good deal by exactions. There is a considerable tax on horses exported for sale, and a toll on beasts of burden exporting merchandise, from 6 rupees on a loaded camel to 1 rupee on a donkey.

Military Force.—According to the old system, the Afghán forces were entirely composed of the *úlús*, or tribesmen of the chiefs, who were supposed to hold their lands on a condition of service, but who, as frequently as not, went over to the enemy in the day of need. As a counterpoise, the late Amír Dost Muhammad began to form a regular army. In 1858 this contained 16 infantry regiments of (nominally) 800 men, 3 of cavalry of 300 men, and about 80 field-pieces, besides a few heavy guns. The pay was bad and extremely irregular, and punishments were severe. The men were fine, but recruited in the worst manner. viz. the arbitrary and forcible seizure of able-bodied men. There were also *Jezáilchi* (riflemen), irregulars, some in the Amír's pay, other levies of the local chiefs; and a considerable number of irregular cavalry.

Language and Literature.—Persian is the vernacular of a large part of the non-Afghán population, and is familiar to all educated Afgháns. But the proper language of the Afgháns is *Pushtú*, or *Pukhtú*, classed by the most competent as Aryan or Indo-Persian dialects. The oldest work in Pushtú is a history of the conquest of Swát by Shaikh Máli, a chief of the Yusafzáis, and leader in the conquest (A.D. 1413-24). The literature is rich in poetry; Abdurrahmán (17th century) being the best known poet. Pushtú seems to be but little spoken west of the Helmand.

History.—The Afghán chroniclers call their people *Beni-Israil* (Arabic for children of Israel), and claim descent from King Saul (whom they call by the Muhammadan corruption *Tálút*) through a son whom they ascribe to him, called Jeremiah, who again had a son called Afghána. This story is repeated with great variety of detail in the Afghán poems and chronicles. But the oldest of these appears to be of the 16th century; nor do we know that any trace of the legend is found of a previous date.

In the time of Darius Hystaspes (B.C. 500) we find Afghánistán embraced under various names in the Achæmenian satrapies. Alexander's march led him to *Artacoana* (Kain), a city of *Aria*, and thence to the country of the *Zarangæ* (Seistán), to that of the *Euergetæ*, upon the *Etymander* (Helmand river), to *Arachosia*, thence to the *Indians*

dwelling among snows in a barren country, probably the highlands between Ghazní and Kábul. Thence he marched to the foot of Caucasus, and spent the winter among the *Paropamisadæ*, founding a city, *Alexandria*, supposed to be Hupián, near Chárikár. On his return from Bactria he prosecuted his march to India by the north side of the Kábul river. The *Ariana* of Strabo corresponds generally with the existing dominions of Kábul, but overpasses their limits on the west and south.

About 310 B.C. Seleucus is said by Strabo to have given to the Indian Sandrocottus (Chandragupta), in consequence of a marriage contract, some part of the country west of the Indus, occupied by an Indian population, and no doubt embracing a part of the Kábul basin. Some sixty years later occurred the establishment of an independent Greek kingdom in Bactria, which eventually extended into Afghánistán. The Kábul basin formed the starting-point of Græco-Bactrian expeditions into India, and is rich in coins of that dynasty. In the 7th century, Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese pilgrim, 630-45 A.D., found both Turkí and Indian princes reigning in the Kábul valley. The last Hindu prince of Kábul succumbed to the Muhammadans in the 10th century. The great dynasty of Mahmúd of Ghazní had its seat in Afghánistán, as had also the later one of Ghor, both of which conquered India. More or less connected with Afghánistán were the so-called Pathán dynasties that reigned at Delhi from the 12th to the 16th century.

The whole of Afghánistán was conquered by Timúr, and Kábul remained in the hands of a descendant till 1501; soon after which another more illustrious one, Sultán Bábar, captured it, adding Kandahár in 1522. For the next two centuries Kábul was held by the Mughal Emperors of Delhi, Herát by Persia, while Kandahár repeatedly changed hands between the two. In 1708, Kandahár expelled the Persians and set up a chief of the Ghilzái tribe; in 1715, Herát also became an independent Afghán State. In 1720-22, the Ghilzáis took Ispahán, and held the throne of Persia for a short space. Nádir Sháh of Persia reoccupied the Afghán Provinces (1737-38), and held them till his assassination in 1747. During the anarchy which followed his death, the different provinces of Afghánistán were gradually formed into a single empire under Ahmad Sháh Duráni, and the Persians were again expelled. On Ahmad Sháh's death in 1773, the Afghán sovereignty included the Punjab and Kashmír on the south-east, and extended to Turkistán and the Oxus on the north.

In 1809, in consequence of the intrigues of Napoleon in Persia, the Hon. Mountstewart Elphinstone had been sent as envoy to Sháh Shujá, then in power, and had been well received by him at Pesháwar. This was the first time the Afgháns made any acquaintance with Englishmen. Lieut. Alex. Burnes visited Kábul (then ruled by Amír Dost Muhammad, Khán of the Barakzái family) on his way to Bokhára in 1832. In 1837, the Persian siege of Herát and the proceedings of Russia created

uneasiness, and Burnes was sent by the Governor-General as Resident to the Amír's court at Kábul. But the terms which the Dost sought were not conceded by the Government, and the rash resolution was taken of re-establishing Sháh Shujá, long a refugee in British territory. Ranjít Sinh, king of the Punjab, bound himself to co-operate, but eventually declined to let our expedition cross his territories, though a Síkh force, with Sir C. Wade and a small British detachment, advanced through the Khaibar. The 'Army of the Indus,' amounting to 21,000 men, therefore assembled in Upper Sind (March 1838), and advanced through the Bolan Pass under the command of Sir John Keane. Kohandil Khán of Kandahár fled to Persia. That city was occupied in April 1839, and Sháh Shujá was crowned in his grandfather's mosque. Ghazní was reached 21st July, and was taken by storm. Dost Muhammad, finding his troops deserting, passed the Hindu Kush, and Sháh Shujá entered the capital (7th August). The war was thought at an end, and Sir John Keane (made a peer) returned to India, leaving behind 8000 men, besides the Sháh's force, with Sir W. Macnaghten as Envoy, and Sir A. Burnes as Resident.

During the two following years, Sháh Shujá and his allies remained in possession of Kábul and Kandahár. The British outposts extended to Saighán, in the Oxus basin, and to Mullah Khán, on the lower Helmand. Dost Muhammad surrendered (Nov. 3, 1840), and was sent to India, where he was honourably treated. From the beginning, insurrection against the new government had been rife. The political authorities were over confident, and neglected warnings. On the 2d November 1841, revolt broke out violently at Kábul, with the massacre of Burnes and other officers. The position of the British camp, its communications with the citadel, and the location of the stores were the worst possible; and the general (Elphinstone) was shattered in constitution. Disaster after disaster occurred, not without misconduct. At a conference (23d December) with the Dost's son, Akbar Khán, who had taken the lead of the Afgháns, Sir W. Macnaghten was murdered by that chief's own hand. On 6th January 1842, after a convention to evacuate the country had been signed, the British garrison, still numbering 4500 soldiers (of whom 690 were Europeans), with some 12,000 followers, marched out of the camp. The winter was severe, the troops demoralized, the march a mass of confusion and massacre; for there was hardly a pretence of keeping the terms. On the 13th the last survivors mustered at Gandamak only twenty muskets. Of those who left Kábul, Dr. Brydon only reached Jalálábád, wounded and half dead. Ninety-five prisoners were afterwards recovered. The garrison of Ghazní had already been forced to surrender (10th December). But General Nott held Kandahár with a stern hand, and General Sale, who had reached Jalálábád from Kábul at the beginning of the outbreak, maintained that important point gallantly.

To avenge these disasters and recover the prisoners, preparations were made in India on a fitting scale; but it was the 16th April 1842 before General Pollock could relieve Jalálábád, after forcing the Khaibar Pass. After a long halt there, he advanced (20th August), and gaining rapid successes, occupied Kábul (15th September), where Nott, after retaking and dismantling Ghazní, joined him two days later. The prisoners were recovered from Bámián. The citadel and central *bázár* of Kábul were destroyed, and the army evacuated Afghánistán Dec. 1842.

Sháh Shujá had been assassinated soon after the departure of the ill-fated garrison. Dost Muhammad, released, was able to resume his position at Kábul, which he retained till his death in 1863.

The most notable facts in later history must be briefly stated. In 1848, during the Síkh war, Dost Muhammad, stimulated by popular outcry and by the Síkh offer to restore Peshávar, crossed the frontier and took Attock. A cavalry force of Afgháns was sent to join Sher Sinh against the British, and was present at the battle of Gujarát (21st Feb. 1849). The Afgháns were hotly pursued to the passes.

In 1850, the Afgháns re-conquered Balkh, and in January 1855, friendly intercourse, which had been renewed between the Dost and the British Government, led to the conclusion of a treaty at Peshávar.

In November 1855, the Dost made himself master of Kandahár. In 1856 came the new Persian advance to Herát, ending in its capture, and the English expedition to the Persian Gulf. In January 1857, the Dost had an interview at Peshávar with Sir J. Lawrence, at which the former was promised arms and a subsidy for protection against Persia. In consequence of this treaty a British mission under Major Lumsden proceeded to Kandahár. The Indian Mutiny followed, and the Afghán excitement strongly tried the Dost's fidelity, but he maintained it.

In 1863, Dost Muhammad, after a ten months' siege, captured Herát; but he died there thirteen days later (9th June), and was succeeded by his son Sher Alí Khán. The latter passed through many vicissitudes, in rivalry with his brothers and nephews, and at one time (1867) his fortunes were so low that he held only Balkh and Herát. By the autumn of 1868, however, he was again established on the throne of Kábul, and his competitors beaten and dispersed. In April 1869, Sher Alí Khán was splendidly received at Umballa (Ambála) by the Earl of Mayo, who had then succeeded Sir J. Lawrence. Friendly relations were confirmed, and the Amír received the balance of a donation of £120,000 which had been partly paid by Sir John Lawrence. A present of artillery and arms was also made to him; followed by occasional aid.

In the latter part of 1872, a correspondence which had gone on between the Governments of Russia and England resulted in a declaration by the former that Afghánistán was beyond the field of Russian influence; whilst the Oxus, from its source in Lake Sir-i-kul to the western limit of Balkh, was recognised as the frontier of Afghánistán.

The principal events between 1872 and 1878 were the Amír's efforts in 1873 to secure a British guarantee for his sovereignty and family succession; Lord Lytton's endeavours, in 1876, to obtain the Amír's consent to the establishment of British Agencies in Afghánistán; and the Pesháwar conference, with a similar view, in 1877, which was brought to an end by the death of the Amír's envoy.

In July 1878, a Russian Mission, under General Stolietoff, was received with honour at Kábul; while the Amír Sher Alí shortly afterwards refused permission for a British Mission, under Sir Neville Chamberlain, to cross his frontier. After some remonstrance and warning, an ultimatum was despatched, and, no reply being received up to the last date allowed, the Amír's attitude was accepted as one of hostility to the British Government. On the 21st November, an invasion of Afghánistán was decided upon, and within a few days the British forces were in full occupation of the Khaibar Pass and the Kuram Valley, after inflicting severe defeats on the Afghán troops. The Amír fled from Kábul on the 13th December, accompanied by the members of the Russian Mission, and, on the 21st February 1879, died, a fugitive, at Mazar-i-Sharíf, in Afghán Turkistán. His second son, Yákub Khán, who had been kept a close prisoner by his father at Kábul, but was released before the Amír's flight, was recognised by the people as Amír. In May 1879, Yákub adjusted all differences by voluntarily coming into the British camp at Gandamak, and signing the treaty which bears the name of that place. Its chief features were the rectification of the frontier in the sense proposed by the British, the acceptance of a British Resident at Kábul, and the complete subordination of the foreign relations of Afghánistán to British influences. Under that treaty, Major Sir Louis Cavagnari was appointed to this post, and was welcomed to the city with great apparent cordiality by the Amír, Yákub Khán. Owing, however, to intrigues, which will probably never be unravelled, the fanatical party was allowed to gain head. On 3d September 1879, the Residency was attacked by a rabble of townspeople and troops, and the British Resident and his escort were murdered, after a valiant defence. In October 1879, an avenging force marched under General (now Sir Frederick) Roberts up the Kuram, and occupied Kábul. The Bala Hissar, including the fort and palace, was partially destroyed. The Amír, Yákub Khán, whose complicity was suspected, abdicated, and was removed to India; and the guilty city remained under British occupation for a year. A new Amír, Abdul Rahman Khán, was recognised on the 22d July 1880; and the punitive purposes of the expedition having been accomplished, the British troops were withdrawn from Kábul in August 1880.

Antiquities.—The basin of the Kábul river abounds in remains of the period when Buddhism flourished, beginning with the Inscribed Rock of Shahbázgarhi, or Kapur-di-giri, in the Pesháwar plain, which

bears one of the replicas of the famous edicts of Asoka (not later than B.C. 250). In the Koh-Dáman, north of Kábul, are the sites of several ancient cities, the greatest of which, called Beghrám, has furnished coins in scores of thousands, and has been supposed to represent Alexander's *Nicæa*. Nearer Kábul, and especially on the hills some miles south of the city, are numerous *topes*. In the valley of Jalálábád are many remains of the same character. In the neighbourhood of Pesháwar are numerous ancient cities and walled villages, in many cases presenting ruins of much interest, besides the remains of topes, monasteries, cave temples, etc., and frequently sculptures exhibiting evident traces of the influence of Greek art. The Mahában mountain, near the Indus, which has been plausibly identified with the *Aornos* of the Greeks, and the hills more immediately compassing the Pesháwar valley, abound in the ruins of ancient fortresses. At Talash, on the Panjkorá river, are ruins of massive fortifications; and in Swát there are said to be remains of several ancient cities. In Tarnak valley are the ruins of a great city (Ulán Robát), supposed to be ancient *Arachosia*. Near Girishk, also, on the Helmand, are extensive mounds and other traces of buildings; and the remains of several great cities exist in the plain of Seistán, as at Pulki, Pesháwarán, and Lásh, relics of ancient *Drangiana*, not yet sufficiently examined. An ancient stone vessel, preserved at a village near Kandahár, is almost certainly the same that was treasured at Pesháwar in the 5th century as the begging-pot of Sakya-Muni. Of the city of Ghazní, the vast capital of Mahmúd and his race, no substantial relics survive, except the tomb of Mahmúd and two remarkable brick minarets. To the vast and fruitful harvest of coins which has been gathered in Afghánistán and the adjoining regions, only a passing allusion can here be made.

Afghán Turkistán is a convenient name applied of late years to those provinces in the basin of the Oxus which are subject to the Amír of Kábul. Badakshán and its dependencies, now tributary to the Amír, are sometimes comprised under the name, but will not be so included here. The whole of the Afghán dominions consist of AFGHANISTAN as above described, Afghán Turkistán, and BADAKHSHAN with its dependencies. This article is abridged from the same published source as the preceding one.

The territories here included will be, beginning from the east, the *khánates* or principalities of Kunduz, Khulm, Balkh with Akcha; and the western *khánates* of Sír-i-pul, Shibirghán, Andkhoi, and Maimena, sometimes classed together as the *Chár Wiláyat*, or 'Four Domains;' and besides these, such part of the Hazára tribes as lie north of the Hindu Kush and its prolongation, defined in the article AFGHANISTAN. The tract thus described includes the southern half of the Oxus basin, from the frontier of Badakhshán on the east to the upper Murgh-áb river on the west. The Oxus itself forms the northern boundary, from the

confluence of the Kokchá or river of Badakhshán, in $69\frac{1}{2}°$ E. long., to Khojá Sálih ferry, in 65° E. long. nearly. Here the boundary quits the river and skirts the Turkomán desert to the point where the Murgh-áb issues upon it. Along the whole southern boundary there is a tract of lofty mountain country. Thus, in the east, south of Kunduz, we have the Hindu Kush rising far into the region of perpetual snow, and with passes ranging from 12,000 to 13,000 feet and upwards. South of Khulm and Balkh is the prolongation of the Hindu Kush, called Koh-i-bába, in which the elevation of the *cols* or passes seems to be nearly as high, though the general height of the crest is lower. The mountains then fork in three branches westward,—viz., *Koh-i-Siáh*, 'The Black Mountain,' to the south of the Herát river; *Koh-i-Safed*, 'The White Mountain,' between the Herát river and the Murgh-áb; and a third ridge north of the latter river. The second branch (Safed-Koh) has been assumed in the article Afghánistán as the boundary of that region. Almost nothing is known of these mountains, except from the journey of Ferrier, who crossed all three watersheds in four days of July 1845. He describes the middle range as very lofty, with a good deal of snow on the pass; the southern range as not so high, the northern one as not nearly so high. The chief rivers, excluding the Oxus, to which most of them direct their course, are, beginning from the east, (1) the Surkh-áb or Aksarái river in Kunduz, (2) the river of Khulm, (3) the Dehás or Bálkh river, (4) the river watering the Char Wiláyat, which loses itself in the desert below Andkhoi, (5) the Murgh-áb, which, after flowing westward in the Paropamisus, turns northwards, reaching Merv, where formerly it formed a fertile oasis, the nucleus of ancient *Margiana*. Beyond this, it is lost in the desert.

The province of Balkh deserves special note. Balkh Proper is the populous and well-watered territory upon the eighteen canals which draw off the waters of the Balkh-áb, and on which there are said to be 360 villages. No trace has been discovered of the ancient splendours of *Bactra*, nor do the best judges appear to accept Ferrier's belief that he saw cuneiform inscriptions upon bricks dug up there. Remains are scattered over some 20 miles of circuit, but they consist mainly of mosques and tombs of sun-dried brick, and show nothing even of early Muhammadan date. The inner city, surrounded by a ruined wall of 4 or 5 miles in compass, is now entirely deserted; a scanty population still occupies a part of the outer city. In 1858, Muhammad Afzal Khán, ruling Turkistán on behalf of his father, Dost Muhammad, transferred the seat of the Afghán Government and the bulk of the population to Takhtapul, a position which he fortified, some 8 miles east of the old city; and this remains the capital of the Afghán territories on the Oxus.

The Population of Afghán Turkistán is estimated at 642,000, including 55,000 for Badakhshán, probably too low an estimate for the

latter. The Tajiks, or people of Iranian blood, are probably the representatives of the oldest surviving race of this region. They are found in some districts of Balkh and valleys of Kunduz. Khost, for instance, is said to be chiefly occupied by them. Uzbeks seem to be the most numerous race; and there are some other Turk tribes not classed as Uzbeks. There seem to be a good many families claiming Arab descent, Afgháns, especially about Balkh and Khulm, and in the towns some Hindus and Jews.

Products and Industry.—Rock salt is worked at Chal, near the Badakhshán frontier, as well as beyond that frontier. Pistachio nuts are grown largely in the hill country of Kunduz, together with the adjoining districts of Badakhshán, and the whole supply of India, Central Asia, and Russia is said to be derived from this region. Fruit is abundant and excellent, especially in Khulm and Balkh. Andkhoi, before its decay, was famous for the black sheepskins and lambskins which we call *astrakhan*, and also for a breed of camels in great demand. Kunduz produces a breed of horses, highly valued in the Kábul market under the name of *Kataghan*. Maimena also is famous for horses, which are often exported to India, and is a mart for carpets and textures of wool and camel's hair. Slave-dealing and man-stealing have long been the curse of this region, but late changes have tended to restrict them.

History.—Ancient Balkh, or *Bactra*, was probably one of the oldest capitals in Central Asia. There Persian tradition places the teaching of Zoroaster. Bactriana was a province of the Achæmenian empire, and probably was occupied in great measure by a race of Iranian blood. About 250 B.C., Theodotus, governor of Bactria under the Seleucidæ, declared his independence, and commenced the history, so dark to us, of the Greco-Bactrian dynasties, whose dominions at one time or another—though probably never simultaneously—touched the Jaxartes and the Gulf of Cutch. Parthian rivalry first, and then a series of nomad movements from Inner Asia, overwhelmed the isolated dominion of the Greeks (*circa* 126 B.C.). Powers rose on the Oxus, known to the Chinese as Yuechi, Kweishwang, Yetha, Tukháras, dimly identified in Western Asia and Europe as Kusháns, Haiáthala, *Ephthalitæ* or White Huns, and *Tochari*. Buddhism, with its monasteries, colossi, and gilded pagodas, spread over the valley of the Oxus. We do not know what further traces of that time may yet be revealed; but we see some in the gigantic sculptures of Bámián. The old Arab historians of the Muhammadan conquest celebrate a heathen temple at Balkh, called by them *Naobihár*, which Sir H. Rawlinson points out to have been certainly a Buddhist monastery (*Nawa-Vihára*). The name Naobihár still attaches to a village on one of the Balkh canals, thus preserving, through so many centuries, the memory of the ancient Indian religion. The memoirs of the Chinese pilgrim Hiouen Thsang, in the first part of the

7th century, give many particulars of the prevalence of his religion in the numerous principalities into which the empire of the Tukháras had broken up; and it is remarkable how many of these states and their names are identical with those which still exist. This is not confined to what were great cities like Balkh and Bámián; it applies to Khulm, Khost, Baghlán, Andaráb, and many more.

As *Haiáthala*, or *Tokháristán*, the country long continued to be known to Muhammadans; its political destiny generally followed that of Khorasán. It bore the brunt of the fury of Chinghiz, and the region seems never to have effectually recovered from the devastations and massacres which he began, and which were repeated in degree by succeeding generations. For about a century these Oxus provinces were attached to the empire of the Delhi Mughals, and then fell into Uzbek hands. In the last century they formed a part of the dominion of Ahmad Sháh Duráni (see AFGHANISTAN), and so remained under his son Timúr. But during the fratricidal wars of Timúr's sons they fell back under the independent rule of various Uzbek chiefs. Among these, the Kataghans of Kunduz were long predominant; and their chief Murad Beg (1815 to about 1842) for some time ruled Kúláb beyond the Oxus, and all south of it from near Balkh to near Pamír.

In 1850 the Afgháns recovered Balkh and Khulm; by 1855 they had also gained Akcha and the four western *khánates;* Kunduz in 1859. They were proceeding to extend their conquests to Badakhshán, when the Amír of that country agreed to pay homage and tribute.

Antiquities.—The best known, and probably the most remarkable, are the famous colossi at Bámián, with the adjoining innumerable caves. In the same locality are the ruins of the mediæval city destroyed by Chinghiz, the great fort called Sayyidabad, and the ruins of Zohák. At Haibak are numerous caves like those of Bámián. Balkh seems to have little or nothing to show, though excavation would probably be rewarded. The little known or unknown valleys of Badakhshán contain remains of interest, but our only notices of them are so highly spiced with imagination as to be worthless.

Afzalgarh.—Town, Bijnor District, North-Western Provinces, on the left bank of the Rámganga. Lat. 29° 23′ 51″ N., long. 78° 43′ 3″ E.; pop. (1872), 8350. Founded by the Patháns, and called after Nawáb Afzal Khán, who built the now ruined fort. Chief trade, forest timber. Distance from Calcutta, 938 miles; from Nagína, 15 miles.

Agai.—Town, Partabgarh District, Oudh; 27 miles from Partabgarh town, and 28 from Rái Bareli. Pop. (1869), 4710, of whom 4603 were Hindus and 107 Musalmáns. Formerly the border town between the *tálukás* (estates) of Rájápur and Rámpur. School.

Agar.—Petty State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 9 square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £1150. Tribute of £18 to Baroda.

Agar.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated on an open plain, 1598 feet above the sea. Distant 41 miles north-east of Ujain. Lat. 23° 43′ 30″ N., long. 76° 4′ 45″ E.; pop. (1820), 30,000. Fort with stone rampart; armed force in 1820, 1200 swordsmen and spearmen, 250 matchlock-men, and 200 cavalry.

Agarpárá.—Municipality in the District of the 24 Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 41′ N., long. 88° 24′ 57″ E.; pop. (1872), 26,801, comprising 21,355 Hindus, 5250 Muhammadans, and 196 Christians and others. Houses, 5500. Municipal revenue in 1872, £1056; rate of municipal taxation, 9¼d. per head of pop. within municipal limits. Contains, besides other institutions, a female orphanage and school under the Church Missionary Society. Ten miles by Húglí river from Calcutta.

Agartalá.—The village capital of Hill Tipperah State, Bengal, and residence of the Rájá; 30 miles from Comillah (Kumillá); no roads. Lat. 23° 50′ 30″ N., long. 91° 23′ 5″ E. Contains palace, school, jail, and hospital. Pop. (1864), 875, but latterly increased, although the exact figures are not known. A municipality in name only, and *thánâ.* Municipal revenue in 1875, £72; municipal taxation, 1s. 7¾d. per head of pop. within municipal limits.

Agartalá, Old.—Village in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal, situated about 4 miles east of the present capital. Reported pop. (1864), 1000. Residence of the Rájás until 1844, when the capital was removed to the new town. The ruins of the palace still stand, together with some monuments to the Rájás and Ránís. Not far from the palace is a small temple much venerated by the hillmen, and containing 14 heads of brass, supposed to represent the tutelary gods of the Tipperahs. Every one who passes the temple is expected to bow his head.

Agáshi.—Town in the Bassein Subdivision of Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay, 8 miles north of Bassein. Lat. 19° 27′ 45″ N., long. 72° 49′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 5997. Average annual value of trade at the port of Agáshi for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £42,568; imports, £9968. Post office. In the early part of the 16th century Agáshi was a place of some importance, with a considerable timber and ship-building trade. It was twice sacked by the Portuguese—in 1530, and again in 1531. In 1530, as many as 300 Guzerat vessels are said to have been taken; and in 1540, the Portuguese captured a ship on the stocks at Agáshi, that afterwards made several voyages to Europe.

Agastya-malai.—Mountain peak, 6150 feet above the sea, in the Travancore State, and on the frontier of the Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 5′ 30″ N., long. 77° 33′ 50″ E. The Támrapúrni river has its source on the hill. Formerly an important astronomical station.

Agra.—A Division in the North-Western Provinces, including the six Districts of AGRA, MUTTRA, FARRUKHABAD, ETAH, ETAWAH, and MAINPURI, all of which see separately. Lat. 26° 21′ 30″—28° 1′ 30″ N.,

long. 77° 19′ 15″—80° 3′ 15″ E. Area, 10,163 square miles. Pop. (1872), 5,038,136, comprising 4,607,946 Hindus, 427,834 Muhammadans, and 2356 others.

Agra.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, situated between lat. 26° 44′ 30″ and 27° 24′ N., and between long. 77° 28′ and 78° 53′ 45″ E. Area, 2197 square miles; pop. (1872), 1,096,367 souls. Bounded on the north by Muttra, on the west by Bhartpur State, on the south by the Dholpur and Gwalior territories, and on the east by Mainpuri and Etáwah. The administrative headquarters are at the city of Agra.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Agra is an artificial administrative division, including territory on either bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), which runs obliquely through its midst and divides it into two unequal portions, The northern and smaller section forms a part of the Doáb, or great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna. Its interior consists of the level and unbroken plateau which characterises the whole of that monotonous tract. The soil is a rich and productive loam, rarely interspersed with narrow ridges of sandy hillock or barren stretches of saline *usar* plain. But as we descend towards the Jumna river, we encounter a broad belt of branching ravines, deeply scored by the torrents which carry off the surface drainage in the rainy season, and either totally bare of vegetation or covered by *bábul* trees and scrub jungle. At the foot of this uncultivated slope lies a narrow strip of *khádir* or modern alluvial deposit, which produces rich crops of wheat and sugar-cane without the necessity for artificial irrigation. The southern and larger portion of the District, lying on the west bank of the Jumna, presents the same general characteristics as the Doáb region, except that it is even more minutely intersected by ramifying ravines. The Utanghan traverses the heart of this portion, while its southern boundary is formed by the large and turbulent stream of the Chambal, whose volume often surpasses that of the Jumna itself. From either river, a network of gorges spreads upwards towards the alluvial plateau above, which continues the general level of the Gangetic plain till it meets, on the south-western border of the District, a low range of sandstone hills, the farthest outliers of the great Vindhyan ridge. The narrow strip of land enclosed between the three main channels of the Jumna, the Chambal, and the Utanghan, consists almost entirely of ravines and the small patches of level ground which divide them. The north-western *parganás*, however, present a wide expanse of level ground, through which the Agra Canal distributes its fertilizing waters. The city of Agra itself is situated on the west bank of the Jumna, about the centre of the District. It contains the famous mausoleum of the Táj Mahal, and numerous other works of architectural interest, details of which will be found in the account of AGRA CITY.

History. —The District of Agra has scarcely any history, apart

from that of the city. The Lodi kings of Delhi had a residence on the east bank of the Jumna, which was occupied by Bábar after his victory over Ibráhim Khán in 1526. Its foundations are still to be seen opposite the modern Agra. Bábar fought a great and decisive battle with the Rájputs near Fatehpur Sikri in 1527. His son Humáyun also resided at old Agra, until his expulsion in 1540. Akbar lived in the District for the greater part of his reign, and founded the present city of Agra on the west bank. The town of FATEHPUR SIKRI also owes its origin to the same Emperor, and dates back to the year 1570. A tank of twenty miles in circumference, which he constructed in its neighbourhood, can now be traced only in the fragmentary ruins of the embankment. The mausoleum at Sikandra, five miles from Agra, marks the burial-place of the great Mughal organizer. It was built by his son Jahángír, and has a fine entrance archway of red sandstone. Jahángír, however, deserted Agra towards the close of his reign, and spent the greater part of his time in the Punjab and Kábul. Sháh Jahán removed the seat of the imperial court to Delhi, but continued the construction of the Táj and the other architectural monuments to which the city owes much of its fame. After the successful rebellion of Aurangzeb and deposition of Sháh Jahán, the deposed Emperor was assigned a residence at Agra. From the year 1666, the District dwindled into the seat of a provincial governor, and was often attacked by the Játs. During the long decline of the Mughal power, the annals of the District are uneventful; but in 1764 Agra was taken by the Játs of Bhartpur under Suráj Mall and Walter Reinhardt, better known by his native name of Samru. In 1770 the Marhattás overran the whole Doáb; but were expelled by the imperial forces under Najaf Khán in 1773. The Játs then recovered Agra for a while, and were driven out in turn by Najaf Khán in the succeeding year. After passing through the usual convulsions which marked the end of the last century in Upper India, the District came into the hands of the British by the victories of Lord Lake in 1803. Under our strong and peaceful government, the annals of Agra call for no special notice up to the date of the Mutiny. The city was long the seat of government for the North-Western Provinces, and remained so until the events of 1857. The outbreak of the Mutiny at Agra in May of that year will be related under AGRA CITY. As regards the District, the *tahsíls* and *thánás* fell into the hands of the rebels, after the defection of the Gwalior contingent, on the 15th of June. By the 2d of July the Neemuch (Nímach) and Nusseerabad mutineers had reached Fatehpur Sikri, and the whole District became utterly disorganized. On the 29th, however, an expedition from Agra recovered that post, and another sally restored order in the Ihtimádpur and Firozábád *parganás*. The Rájá of Awah maintained tranquillity in the north, while the Rájá of Bhadáwar secured peace on

the eastern border. But after the fall of Delhi in September, the rebels from that city, joined by the bands from Central India, advanced towards Agra on the 6th of October. Four days later, Col. Greathed's column from Delhi entered Agra without the knowledge of the mutineers, who incautiously attacked the city, and hopelessly shattered themselves against his well-tried force. They were put to flight easily and all their guns taken. The rebels still occupied Fatehpur Sikri, but a column despatched against that post successfully dislodged them. On the 29th of November the last villages remaining in open rebellion were stormed and carried; and on the 4th of February 1858 the last man still under arms was driven out of the District.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total inhabitants in Agra District at 1,001,961; that of 1865 gave a total of 1,028,544; and that of 1872 showed a further rise to 1,096,367. These figures exhibit an increase of 94,406, or 9·4 per cent., during the 19 years. The Census of 1872 was taken upon an area of 1907 square miles (since increased by 290 square miles, through the transference of *parganá* Jalesar from Muttra to this District in 1874), and it disclosed a total population of 1,096,367 souls, distributed among 1231 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 231,270 houses. These figures yield the following averages: Persons per square mile, 575; villages per square mile, 0·6; houses per square mile, 121; persons per village, 891; persons per house, 4·7. Classified according to sex, there were, exclusive of troops—males, 589,562; females, 504,622; proportion of males, 53·9 per cent. According to age—under 12 years, males, 193,452; females, 165,055; total, 358,507, or 32·8 per cent.: above 12 years, males, 396,110; females, 339,567; total, 735,677, or 67·2 per cent. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, 985,483, or 90·1 per cent., were returned as Hindus, and 107,135, or 9·8 per cent., as Musalmáns. There were also 1566 Christians and 'others.' The three higher castes of Hindus numbered 154,520 Bráhmans, 111,066 Rájputs, and 63,732 Banias. Among the lower castes, the Ahírs amounted to 34,206, Chamárs to 176,933, and Káyasths to 10,946. The Musalmáns included 73,169 Shaikhs, 6233 Sayyids, 2127 Mughals, and 22,851 Patháns. The total agricultural population was returned at 535,249 souls, or 48·9 per cent. of the whole. The rural classes live almost entirely in mud huts; but in the south-west of the District, near the quarries, stone houses are common, and even the poorer people live in cottages of unhewn stone roughly piled together. Houses with a large courtyard, accommodating many families, and surrounded by a ditch enclosing a mud wall, are known as *garhs* or forts. They were dotted over the whole face of the country in Hindu and Muhammadan times. The District contained, in 1872, five towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, Agra, 149,008; Firozabad, 14,255;

Fatehpur Sikri, 6878; Panáhat, 6571; and Samra, 5704. These figures show a total urban population of 182,416 souls. Jalesar, which at the date of the Census belonged to Muttra District, contained 15,694 inhabitants; and Awah, in the same *parganá*, had 5584.

Agriculture.—In the Doáb, the soil is generally rich and fertile, but elsewhere its productiveness is much impaired by the prevalence of ravines. Their influence extends far beyond the area actually occupied by their sloping sides; for wherever any perceptible declivity begins, the surface soil is washed away, leaving scarcely enough mould for seed to germinate in; while farther beyond, above the declivity, a belt of sandy loam occurs, where the produce is always poor and uncertain. The *khádir* or low-lying silt, however, which stretches between the ravines and the river-sides, is usually rich and fruitful. The course of agriculture does not differ from that which is common throughout the whole upper Gangetic plain. The crops are divided into the *kharíf* or autumn harvest and the *rabí* or spring harvest. The *kharíf* crops are sown after the first rain in June, and reaped in October or November. They consist of *bájra*, *joár*, *moth*, and other food grains; besides rice, which, however, is harvested as early as the end of August, and cotton, which is not ready for picking till February. The *rabí* crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March and April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, and peas and other pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both harvests; and land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. As a rule, the same soil is not planted for both spring and autumn harvests in a single year, but occasionally a crop of early rice is taken off a plot in August, and some other seed sown in its place for the spring reaping. Rotation of crops is practised in its simplest form; autumn staples alternate with spring, wheat and barley being substituted for cotton and *bájra*, while gram takes the place of *joár*. Sugar-cane, tobacco, and vegetables are also grown. The total area under cultivation is 1365 sq. miles. From the statistics of out-turn during the last twenty years, it appears that the amount of cotton and superior cereals has been greatly on the increase; but as additional land has been brought under tillage at the same time, there has been no corresponding diminution in the growth of cheaper food grains. Most of the cultivators who have no other occupation are badly off and heavily in debt. Even the landowners are far from rich, owing to the minute subdivision of property. In the greater number of cases the tenants possess rights of occupancy. In 1877 wages ruled as follows: Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women are paid about one-fifth less than men, while children receive from one-third to one-half the wages of adults. The following were the average prices current of food-stuffs in 1876:

Wheat, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; rice, 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s. per cwt.; *joár*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt. Both wages and prices have risen 15 or 20 per cent. between 1857 and 1877.

Natural Calamities.—The District suffers much in periods of drought, as it depends so largely on natural rainfall for its water supply. Famines from this cause occurred in 1783, in 1813, in 1819, and in 1838. In the last-named year as many as 113,000 paupers were be ng relieved at one time in Agra city alone, while 300,000 starving people immigrated into the District in search of work or charity. Prosperity returned very slowly, and for many years traces of the famine might be observed on every side. In 1860-61 the District was again visited by a severe scarcity, though it did not suffer so greatly as the country immediately to the north. In April 1861, 18,000 persons were employed on relief works, and 2000 on irrigation works; in July, the daily average so occupied had risen to 66,000. Wheat rose to 10 *sers* per rupee or 11s. 2d. per cwt. in September 1860, but fell again to 15 *sers*, or 7s. 6d., by July 1861; and the effects of this famine were not so severe or so lasting as those of the drought of 1837-38. The last great scarcity was that of 1868-69. The failure of rain in the autumn of the former year destroyed the *kharíf* crops, and confined the spring sowings to irrigated lands. The *rabí* was saved by rain in January and February; but distress began to be felt from September 1868. The famine was never really dangerous in the District itself, as rain fell in the west; but crowds of fugitives trooped in from the Native States of Rájputána, bringing want and disease in their train. Work was found for the able-bodied on the Agra Canal, while gratuitous support was afforded by Government to women and invalids. Distress, which was again felt in 1877-78, becomes serious in this District when the scarcity of the cheap autumn food-stuffs forces labouring people to consume the better grains of the spring crops. When prices rise to a uniform rate of 12 or 13 *sers* per rupee (8s. 7d. to 9s. 4d. per cwt.), they are quite beyond the means of the labourer, and famine is reached.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District centres mainly in the city of AGRA. There are, however, two indigo factories and several cotton screws in the rural parts, besides the usual village manufactures of pottery and coarse cloth. Large cattle markets are held at Sultánpur, Kandharpur, Jarra, and Shamsabad. The chief commercial fair is that of Batesar, on the right bank of the Jumna, at which about 150,000 persons attend the Bathing Festival, and a great trade is transacted in horses, camels, and cattle. Large quantities of stone are quarried in the south-west of the District, and exported by the Jumna, after being dressed and carved at Agra. The system of communications is excellent. The East Indian main

line runs through the whole Doáb section, with stations at Firozabad, Túndla, and Barhan; and sends out a branch from Túndla to Agra, which crosses the Jumna by a bridge belonging to the Rájputána State Railway. The latter line runs from Agra to Jeypore, *viâ* Bhurtpore, and has a length of 20 miles within the District. The Sindhia State Railway, now under construction, will leave the Rájputána line at Agra, and, after crossing the Utanghan and Chambal, proceed to Gwalior, *viâ* Dholpur. Good metalled roads connect Agra with Muttra, Aligarh, Cawnpore, Etáwah, Gwalior, Kerowlee, Fatehpur Sikri, and Bhurtpore. The Agra Canal has one navigable channel, and the Jumna still carries a large amount of heavy traffic eastward.

Administration.—The District staff consists of a collector-magistrate, two joint magistrates, an assistant, and two uncovenanted deputies, besides the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary establishment. Agra is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who has also jurisdiction in Muttra. The whole amount of revenue raised in the District in 1876, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, amounted to £435,420, being at the rate of 7s. 11d. per head of the population. In 1875 the regular police force consisted of 1360 officers and men, who were maintained at a cost of £15,510. These figures give an average of 1 policeman to every 1½ square mile of area and to every 806 persons of the population; while the cost of the police was at the rate of £7, 1s. 2d. per square mile and 2½d. per head. The District contains the Central Jail for the Division, the average number of prisoners in which, during the year 1875, amounted to 2366, of whom 2203 were males and 163 females. The average cost per head was £2, 17s. 10½d.; average earnings of each prisoner, £2, 14s. 0d. There is also a District jail, which contained in the same year a daily average of 623 prisoners, all of whom were males. The average cost per prisoner was £2, 16s. 0d., and the average earnings of each prisoner 14s. Seven lines of telegraph leave the Agra station, to Aligarh, Bhurtpore, Cawnpore, Dholpur, Muttra, and the two railways. There are also telegraph offices at all the stations on the East Indian and Rájputána lines. The District contains 17 imperial and 12 local post offices. Education was carried on in 1875 by 538 schools, with a total of 13,744 scholars, being at the rate of 1 school for every 4 square miles, and yielding a percentage of 1·25 scholars on the whole population. Three places of higher education exist at Agra—namely, the Government College, St. John's College, and Victoria College. Anglo-vernacular schools are established at Agra, Firozabad, Ihtimádpur, Fatehabad, and Fatehpur Sikri. For fiscal purposes the District is divided into ten *tahsíls* and ten *parganás*. The land revenue in 1876 amounted to £193,468. Agra contains four municipalities—namely, Agra, Jalesar, Fatehpur Sikri, and Firozabad. In 1875-76 their joint income amounted

to £15,975, and their united expenditure to £14,994. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 4⅛d. per head of the population within the municipal boundaries.

Medical Aspects.—The Agra District, from its proximity to the sandy deserts on the west, is very dry, and suffers from greater extremes of temperature than the country farther east. Though cold in winter and exceedingly hot in summer, the climate is not considered unhealthy. The mean annual temperature was 79° F. in 1870 and 73° F. in 1871; the lowest monthly average was 59° F. in January, and the highest, 96° F. in June. The total annual rainfall for the eleven years ending 1871 had a mean of 22·6 inches, the maximum being 36·5 inches in 1867, and the minimum 11·9 inches in 1860. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1875 amounted to 23·38 per thousand of the population. The average death-rate recorded for the preceding six years was 19·96 per thousand. There are seven charitable dispensaries in the District,—four in Agra, and one each at Fatehpur Sikri, Firozabad, and Jalesar. In 1875 they afforded relief to 55,375 persons.

Agra.—*Tahsíl* of Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the river Jumna, and containing the great city from which it derives its name. Area, 186 square miles, of which 150 are cultivated. Pop. (1872), 262,196; land revenue, £18,571; total revenue, £21,086; rent paid by cultivators, £35,234; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 1½d.

Agra.—Chief city of Agra District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 10′ 6″ N., long. 78° 5′ 4″ E.; population in 1872, 149,008; area, 19,656 acres. Agra is the second city in size and importance of the North-Western Provinces, and is situated on the right bank of the river Jumna, about 300 miles above its confluence with the Ganges. Distance by rail from Calcutta, 841 miles; from Allahabad, 277 miles; and from Delhi, 139 miles.

Site and Area.—The city of Agra occupies a bend of the river Jumna, where the stream turns sharply to the east; and the fort is perched in the angle thus formed, at the very edge of the bank. The old walls enclosed an area of about 11 square miles, half of which is now inhabited, while the remainder consists of ruins, ravines, and bare patches of open ground. The cantonments lie to the south of the fort, and between them on the river bank a little eastward rises the famous mausoleum of the Táj Mahal. North-west of the fort stretch the buildings connected with the civil station; while between the station and the Jumna lies the native city, better built than any other town in the North-Western Provinces, and containing a much larger proportion of stone houses. The site is generally level, but a few ravines intersect the European quarter and the native city, while the space between the Táj and the fort is a mass of tangled gorges, running south-

ward in the direction of the cantonments. Agra is a well-built and handsome town, and its numerous architectural works, as well as the prominent part which it bore in Mughal history, give it a lasting interest to the tourist and the student.

History.—Before the time of Akbar, Agra had been a residence of the Lodi kings, whose city, however, lay on the left or eastern bank of the Jumna. Traces of its foundations may still be noticed opposite the modern town. Bábar occupied its old palace after his victory over Ibráhim Khán in 1526; and when, a year later, he defeated the Rájput forces near Fatehpur Sikri and securely established the Mughal supremacy, he took up his permanent residence at this place. Here he died in 1530; but his remains were removed to Kábul, so that no mausoleum preserves his memory amongst the tombs of the dynasty whose fortunes he founded for a second time. His son Humáyun was driven out of the Ganges valley by the intrusive family of Sher Sháh, and after his re-establishment on the throne he fixed his court at Delhi. Humáyun was succeeded by his son Akbar, the great organizer of the imperial system. Akbar removed the seat of government to the present Agra, which he founded on the right bank of the river, and built the fort in 1566. Four years later, he laid the foundations of Fatehpur Sikri, and contemplated making that town the capital of his empire, but was dissuaded, apparently, by the superior advantages of Agra, situated as it was on the great waterway of the Jumna. From 1570 to 1600, Akbar was occupied with his conquests to the south and east; but in 1601 he rested from his wars, and returned to Agra, where he died four years later. During his reign the palaces in the fort were commenced, and the gates of Chittor were set up at Agra. The Emperor Jahángir succeeded his father, whose mausoleum he built at SIKANDRA. He also erected the tomb of his father-in-law, Itmád-ud-daulá, on the left bank of the river, as well as the portion of the palace in the fort known as the Jahángir Mahal. In 1618 he left Agra and never returned. Sháh Jahán resided here from 1632 to 1637. It is to his reign that most of the great architectural works in the fort must be referred, though doubtless many of them had been commenced at an earlier date. The Motí Masjíd, or Pearl Mosque, the Jamá Masjíd, or Great Mosque, and the Khás Mahal, were all completed under this magnificent emperor. The Táj Mahal, generally allowed to be the most exquisite piece of Muhammadan architecture in the world, commemorates his wife, Mumtáz-i-Mahal. In 1658 Sháh Jahán's fourth son, Aurangzeb, rebelled and deposed him; but the ex-emperor was permitted to live in imperial state at Agra for seven years longer. After his death, Agra sank for a while to the position of a provincial city, as Aurangzeb removed the seat of government permanently to Delhi. It had often to resist the attacks of the turbulent Játs during the decline of the Mughals; and

in 1764 it was actually taken by the Bhurtpore forces under Suráj Mall and Walter Reinhardt, better known by his native name of Samru. In 1770, the Marhattás ousted the Játs, and were themselves driven out by the imperial troops under Najaf Khán four years later. Najaf Khán then resided in the city for many years with great state as imperial minister. After his death in 1779, Muhammad Beg was governor of Agra, and in 1784 he was besieged by the forces of the Emperor Sháh Alam and Madhojí Sindhiá, the Marhattá prince. Sindhiá took Agra, and held it till 1787, when he was in turn attacked by the imperial troops under Jhulam Kadir and Ismáil Beg. The partisan General de Boigne raised the siege by defeating them near Fatehpur Sikri in June 1788. Thenceforward the Marhattás held the fort till it was taken by Lord Lake in October 1803. From this time it remained a British frontier fortress; and in 1835 the seat of government for the North-Western Provinces was removed here from Allahabad. The English rule continued undisturbed until the Mutiny of 1857. News of the outbreak at Meerut reached Agra on the 11th of May, and the fidelity of the native soldiers at once became suspected. On the 30th of May two companies of Native Infantry, belonging to the 44th and 67th Regiments, who had been despatched to Muttra to escort the treasure into Agra, proved mutinous, and marched off to Delhi. Next morning their comrades were ordered to pile arms, and sullenly obeyed. Most of them then quietly retired to their own homes. The Mutiny at Gwalior took place on the 15th of June, and it became apparent immediately that the Gwalior contingent at Agra would follow the example of their countrymen. On the 3d of July the Government found it necessary to retire into the fort. Two days later the Neemuch and Nusseerabad rebels advanced towards Agra, and were met by the small British force at Sucheta. Our men were compelled to retire after a brisk engagement; and the mob of Agra, seeing their masters unsuccessful, rose at once, plundered the city, and murdered every Christian, European or native, upon whom they could lay their hands. The blaze of the bungalows was seen by our retreating troops even before they reached the shelter of the fort. The mutineers, however, moved on to Delhi without entering the town; and on the 8th, partial order was restored in Agra. During the months of June, July, and August, the officials remained shut up in the fort, though occasional raids were made against the rebels in different directions. After the fall of Delhi in September, the fugitives from that city, together with the rebels from Central India, advanced against Agra on October the 6th. Meanwhile, Col. Greathed's column from Delhi entered the city without the knowledge of the mutineers, who unsuspectingly attacked his splendid force, and were repulsed, after a short contest, which completely broke up their array. Agra was immediately relieved from all danger, and the work of reconstituting the Dis-

trict went on unmolested. The Government continued to occupy the former capital until February 1858, when it removed to Allahabad, which was considered a superior military position. Sinoe that time Agra has become, for administrative purposes, merely the headquarters of a Division and District; but the ancient capital still maintains its natural supremacy as the finest city of Upper India, while the development of the railway system, of which it forms a great centre, is gradually rendering it once more the commercial metropolis of the north-west.

Architectural Works.—Most of the magnificent Mughal buildings, which render Agra so interesting in the eye of the traveller, are situated within the limits of Akbar's fort. They illustrate and justify the criticism, that the Mughals designed liked Titans and finished like jewellers. Their bare outlines can alone be indicated in this article. But a description of rare literary charm and architectural value will be found in Fergusson's *History of Indian Architecture* (Ed. 1876). Mr. H. G. Keene's *Handbook to Agra* will be found an excellent and a most useful guide. The fortress is built of sandstone, and its vast red walls and flanking defences give it an imposing appearance as viewed either from the land or the water. The oldest structures within its lines are composed of the same red stone, and date from the reign of Akbar. In front of the main entrance is a walled square or *place d'armes*, known as the Tripolia, and now used as a market-place. Facing the gateway, and outside the enclosure of the fort, stands the Jamá Masjíd, or Great Mosque, elevated upon a raised platform, and reached by a broad flight of steps. The main building of the mosque is divided into three compartments, each of which opens on the courtyard by a fine archway, and is surmounted by a low dome, built of white and red stone in oblique courses, and producing a somewhat singular though pleasing effect. The work has all the originality and vigour of the early Mughal style, mixed with many reminiscences of the Pathán school. The inscription over the main archway sets forth that the mosque was constructed by the Emperor Sháh Jahán in 1644, after five years' labour. It was built in the name of his daughter, Jahánára, who afterwards devotedly shared her father's captivity when he was deposed by Aurangzeb. The dimensions are 130 feet in length by 100 in breadth. From the Jamá Masjíd we cross the square to the fortress, whose walls are 70 feet high, and a mile and a half in circuit; but as they are only faced with stone, and consist within of sand and rubble, they have no real strength, and would crumble at once before the fire of modern artillery. A drawbridge leads across the deep moat which surrounds the crenelated ramparts, and gives access, through a massive gateway and up a paved ascent, to the inner portal. The actual entrance is flanked by two octagonal towers of red sandstone, inlaid with ornamental designs in white marble; the passage between them being covered by

two domes, and known as the Delhi gate. Within it, beyond a bare space once occupied by a courtyard, lie the palace buildings, the first of which is known as the Diwán-i-ám, or Public Audience Hall, formerly used as an armoury. It was built by Aurangzeb in 1685, and did duty as imperial hall and court-house for the palace. The roof is supported by colonnades, which somewhat impair the effect of the interior. This hall opens on a large court or tilt-yard; and while the Emperor with his grandees sat in the open hall, the general public occupied three of the cloisters. A raised throne accommodated the sovereign, behind which a door communicated with the private apartments of the palace. The main range of buildings does not belong to Akbar's time, but was built by his son and grandson. The centre consists of a great court, 500 feet by 370, surrounded by arcades, and approached at opposite ends through a succession of corridors opening into one another. The Diwán-i-ám is on one side, and behind it are two smaller enclosures, the one containing the Diwán-i-khás, and the other the harem. Three sides were occupied by the residences of the ladies, and the fourth by three white pavilions. The Diwán-i-khás, or Hall of Private Audience, consists of two corridors, 64 feet long, 34 feet broad, and 22 feet high, both built in 1637. The Machi Bháwan, or court between these and the Diwán-i-ám, was probably built by Sháh Jahán. On the river side of this court are two thrones, one of white marble and the other of black slate. The substructures of the palace are of red sandstone, but the corridors, rooms, and pavilions are of white marble elaborately carved. Next to the Diwán-i-khás comes the Shish Mahal, or Palace of Glass, which was an oriental bath adorned with thousands of small mirrors. To the south, again, lies a large red building called the Jahángir Mahal, with a fine two-storied façade and relieving lines of white marble; one of the inner courts is 70 feet square, and both are of red stone. Between them is a handsome entry on pillars. The exquisite Motí-Masjíd, or Pearl Mosque, stands to the north of the Diwán-i-ám. It is raised upon a lofty sandstone platform, and has three domes of white marble with gilded spires. The domes crown a corridor open towards the court and divided into three aisles by a triple row of Saracenic arches. The Pearl Mosque is 142 feet long by 56 feet deep, and was built by Sháh Jahán in 1654.

The Táj Mahal with its beautiful domes, 'a dream in marble,' rises on the river bank. It is reached from the fort by the Strand Road, made in the famine of 1838, and adorned with stone *ghâts* by native gentlemen. The Táj was erected as a mausoleum for the remains of Arjamand Benu Begam, wife of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, and known as Mumtáz-i-Mahal, or Exalted of the Palace. She died in 1629, and this building was set on foot soon after her death, though not completed till 1648. The materials are white marble from Jeypore, and red sandstone from Fatehpur Sikri. The complexity of its design and the delicate

intricacy of the workmanship baffle description. The mausoleum stands on a raised marble platform, at each of whose corners rises a tall and slender minaret of graceful proportions and exquisite beauty. Beyond the platform stretch the two wings, one of which is itself a mosque of great architectural merit. In the centre of the whole design, the mausoleum occupies a square of 186 feet, with the angles deeply truncated, so as to form an unequal octagon. The main feature of this central pile is the great dome, which swells upward to nearly two-thirds of a sphere, and tapers at its extremity into a pointed spire, crowned by a crescent. Beneath it, an enclosure of marble trellis-work surrounds the tombs of the princess and of her husband, the emperor. Each corner of the mausoleum is covered by a similar though much smaller dome, erected on a pediment pierced with graceful Saracenic arches. Light is admitted into the interior through a double screen of pierced marble, which tempers the glare of an Indian sky, while its whiteness prevents the mellow effect from degenerating into gloom. The internal decorations consist of inlaid work in precious stones, such as agate and jasper, with which every spandril or other salient point in the architecture is richly fretted. Brown and violet marble is also freely employed in wreaths, scrolls, and lintels, to relieve the monotony of the white walls. In regard to colour and design, the interior of the Táj may rank first in the world for purely decorative workmanship; while the perfect symmetry of its exterior, once seen, can never be forgotten, nor the aerial grace of its domes, rising like marble bubbles into the clear sky.

On the left bank of the river stands the mausoleum of Ihtmád-ud-daulá, the *wazír* of Jahángir; five miles out, on the Delhi road, is the tomb of the Emperor Akbar.

Amongst the modern buildings, may be mentioned the Government College on the Drummond Road, the Central Prison, and the Judges' Courts. The Catholic Mission and Orphanage is also of interest for its relative antiquity, having been founded as early as the reign of Akbar, through the influence of the Jesuit fathers, when the Portuguese were the only Europeans who had much communication with India. In the cemetery are many tombs of early date with Armenian inscriptions.

Population.—By the Census of 1872 the total population of the city and station of Agra was returned at 149,008 souls. Of these, 79,344 were males, and 69,664 females. The Hindus numbered 103,921 persons, the Muhammadans 43,558, and the Christians or others 1529. Agra contains 34,050 houses, of which 25,171 are built of masonry, and 8879 of mud; but the latter are almost all to be found in the suburbs, while the city itself is remarkable for the comfort and solidity of its domestic architecture. The houses of the better classes are three or four storeys high; the upper floors being often decorated with

carved balconies, and the lower floors are open, and surrounded by pillared verandahs.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—Agra is a great grain mart, whence traders to the south and west draw their supplies; and it is a centre where the sugar or other produce of Rohilkhand and the north converges, before being finally dispersed to the places of consumption. It has also a large manufacture of shoes, pipe stems, and gold lace. But to Europeans the main *specialité* of Agra is its inlaid mosaic work, like that of the Táj, which is still as beautifully and deftly fabricated as in the days of the Mughal emperors. From the minuteness and delicacy of the work, it is necessarily very expensive. The chief imports of Agra are sugar, tobacco, grain, salt, and cotton, while the exports consist of *darris*, gold lace, and wrought stone from the quarries of Fatehpur Sikri and the Bandroli hills. The city has hardly maintained its commercial position of late years, as it lies away from the main line of the East Indian Railway. It is connected by a branch line from Túndla (distant 13 miles), which crosses the Jumna by a bridge; while the Rájputána State Railway from Bhurtpore now affords access on the west, and the new Sindhia State Railway will connect it with Dholpur and Gwalior on the south. When these lines are united with the Bombay system, their convergence at this point will doubtless render Agra once more the commercial metropolis of Northern India. In addition to these modern means of communication, the old imperial road through Muttra enters the town from the north-west, while the Fatehpur Sikri and Bhurtpore roads communicate with the western country. The Jumna is also used for heavy traffic, though superseded by the railways for passengers and light goods.

Municipality.—Agra has a municipality of 25 members, of whom 8 are official, and 17 elected by the taxpayers. In 1875-76 its gross income amounted to £13,462, of which sum £10,861 was raised by octroi; while its total expenditure was returned at £12,954. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. $5\frac{1}{8}$d. per head of the population (150,677) within municipal limits.

Agra.—Village in the Jessor Sundarbans, Bengal, containing remains of old buildings, supposed to be the residences of early settlers in the Sundarbans.

Agra Barkhera.—Petty State in the Bhopal Political Agency (Central India). Lat. 23° 57′ N., long. 77° 32′ E. Thákur Balwant Sinh, the chief of the State, holds a grant of 12 villages from Sindhia, to whom he pays annually £100 as quit-rent. Estimated revenue in 1875, £700; pop. 4219.

Agradwíp.—Island in the Bhágirathí river, Nadiyá District, Bengal; scene of one of the principal fairs and festivals of the District. Lat. 25° 33′ 45″—23° 37′ N., long. 88° 17′ 15″—88° 19′ 15″ E.

Agrahára Vellálar.—Town in the Coimbatore *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 58′ 30″ N., long. 77° 3′ 38″ E.; pop. 6207, mainly agricultural; houses, 1072. Situated on the Nóyil river, five miles south-east of Coimbatore, and near the Pothanúr Railway junction. The wet lands of this village are of high value.

Agroha.—Ancient town of Hissár District, Punjab; pop. (1868), 1090 souls. Situated 13 miles north-west of Hissár. Original seat of the Agarwála Banias, and once a place of great importance. Remains of a fort still visible about half a mile from the existing village; ruins and *débris* half buried in the soil on every side, attest its former greatness. Captured by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori in 1194, since which time the Agarwála Banias have been scattered over the whole continent. The clan comprises many of the wealthiest men in India.

Agrore (*Ughi*).—Frontier valley in Hazára District, Punjab, comprising the upper basin of the river Unar. Consists of three branches or mountain glens, 10 miles in length and 6 in breadth. The lower portions form a mass of luxuriant cultivation, thickly dotted with villages, hamlets, and groves, and surrounded by dark pine-clad heights, whose depressions occasionally disclose the snowy peaks of the main range in the distance. Water is abundant and perennial, so that failure of crops seldom occurs. Lat. 34° 29′—34° 35′ 15″ N., long. 72° 58′—73° 9′ 30″ E.; pop. 8721, chiefly Swátis and Gújars. Muhammadanism is the almost universal creed. Sole manufacture, common country cloth; trade purely local. The valley is under the direct management of the Khán of Agrore; but the British Government maintains an extra Assistant Commissioner and a *thánádár*. Disturbances occurred in 1868, which resulted in the temporary removal of the Khán under surveillance to Lahore; but he has since been restored to his authority in the valley. Agrore is exposed to raids from beyond the frontier, and a military force is maintained for the preservation of order. Area, 41,285 acres, of which 20,820 are cultivated.

Agumbi.—A pass in the Udipi *táluk*, South Kanara District, Madras, connecting Mysore with Kanara. Lat. 13° 29′—13° 29′ 30″ N., long. 75° 6′ 20″—75° 8′ E. The trunk road from Mangalore to the Nagar division of Mysore crosses by this pass, and much coffee and sandal-wood are conveyed along it to the coast, the pass being practicable for wheeled vehicles.

Agustiswar.—Mountain in Madras.—*See* AGASTYA-MALAI.

Agwon.—Revenue circle, Rangoon District, British Burma, N.E. of mouth of Rangoon river. Sandy, and fringed with belts of jungle and high grass, near the sea; open plains farther inland, with marshes well known for their fisheries; slightly elevated to the north. Revenue (1876), £10,417; pop. 11,568, chiefly engaged in agriculture, fisheries,

and salt-making. Agwon has lately been divided into two revenue circles, North and South Agwon.

Ahankaripur. — Town, Fyzabad District, Oudh, 22 miles from Fyzabad town. Pop. (1869), 2966, of whom 1779 were Hindus, and 1187 Muhammadans. Named after its founder, a Barwár chief called Ahankári Rái. Considerable export trade in hides to Calcutta. Government school.

Ahár.—Ancient town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; lying on the right bank of the Ganges, 21 miles N.E. of Bulandshahr. Pop. (1872), 2414 souls. Police station, post office, school. Large fair in June, at which crowds assemble to bathe in the Ganges. Town abounds in temples of considerable antiquity; the most remarkable are dedicated to Mahádeo. Thriving local trade; bridge of boats across the Ganges in dry months. Large tumuli in the neighbourhood testify to former importance; probably the capital of a Hindu principality before the advent of the Musalmáns. The Nágar Bráhmans of Ahár became Muhammadans under Aurangzeb, and retained proprietary rights till 1857, when they forfeited their lands by complicity in the Mutiny. Their property was then conferred on Rájá Gursali Mall of Moradabad.

Ahiri.—Chiefship, constituting the southern portion of Chánda District, Central Provinces. Lat. 28° 57′ 30″—20° 52′ 30″ N., long. 79° 57′ —81° 1′ E.; area, 2550 square miles. Hilly on the east and south, and famed for its magnificent forests. Much of the teak has been felled, but many thousand fine trees still remain. Inhabitants almost entirely Gonds; languages, Gondí and Telegu. The proprietor is first in rank of the Chánda *zamíndárs*, and is connected with the family of the Gond kings.

Ahiri.—Forest in the chiefship of the same name, yielding teak of great value; two blocks named Bemaram and Mirkallú have been reserved by Government and marked out by boundary lines. Lat. 19° 18′ 30″—19° 27′ 45″ N., long. 80° 7′—80° 13′ 15″ E.

Ahirwas. — A ruined fort in Holkár's dominions, Central India. Lat. 22° 31′ N., long. 76° 31′ E. Celebrated as the last refuge of the Pindári leader, Chetu, who was eventually killed by a tiger in the thick surrounding jungle.

Ahiyári.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 18′ N., long. 85° 50′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 2106. Scene of religious gathering, called Ahalyásthán or Singheswarsthán, attended by 10,000 people; contains a fine temple and stone with imprint of Sítá's foot.

Ahmadabad and **Ahmadnagar** (*Districts in Bombay*).—*See* AHMEDABAD, AHMEDNAGAR, the 'officially-prescribed rendering.'

Ahmadgarh.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; distant 28 miles south-east from Bulandshahr, and 6 miles north

from Pahásu. Pop. (1872), 2621. Post office and school. Weekly market. North of the village is a small lake, on the borders of which are ruins of fine buildings founded by Ani Rái, the Badgújar Rájá of Anúpshahr, and named after his title of Ahmad Kháni.

Ahmadnagar.—Village, Kheri District, Oudh. Area, 1350½ acres; pop. (1869), 1272. River Saráyan takes its rise in the village. Good water supply. Ruins of a mud fort.

Ahmadpur.—Trading village in Bírbhúm (Beerbhoom) District, Bengal, and station on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway, 111 miles from Calcutta Since the opening of the railway, has become a large *entrepôt* for rice.

Ahmadpur.—A town in Baháwalpur State, Punjab. Lat. 29° 8′ 30″ N., long. 71° 18′ E.; estimated pop. 30,000. Chief trade in arms, cotton, and silk. The town is meanly built, but has a handsome mosque with four lofty minarets.

Ahmedabad (*Ahmadábád*).—A District in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay Presidency, lying between 21° 57′ 30″ and 23° 24′ 30″ N. latitude, and 71° 20′ and 72° 57′ 30″ E. longitude. Total area, 3804 square miles. Pop. (1872), 829,637 souls.

Ahmedabad District is bounded on the west by the peninsula of Káthiáwár, on the north by the northern division of the Baroda territory, on the north-east by the Mahi Kánta territory, on the east by the State of Bálásinor and the British District of Kaira, and on the south-east and south by the Gulf of Cambay. The boundary line is irregular, and two of the Subdivisions—Parántij in the north-east, and Gogo in the south—are cut off from the main body of the District by the territories of native chiefs.

Physical Aspects.—The general appearance of the District shows that at no very remote period it has been covered by the sea. The tract between the head of the Gulf of Cambay and the Runn of Cutch (Kachchh) is still subject to overflow in high tides. In the extreme south, and also just beyond the northern boundary, are a few rocky hills. But between these points the whole of the District forms a level plain, gradually rising towards the north and east, its surface unbroken by any inequality greater than a sandhill.

The chief feature of the District is the river Sábarmati, which rises in the north-east near the extremity of the Aravalli range, and flows towards the south-west, falling finally into the Gulf of Cambay. Its total course is about 200 miles, and the drainage area is estimated at 9500 square miles. The river has several tributaries both above and below Ahmedabad city, of which some are of considerable size. The Sábarmati is not navigable. In all parts of the District, except in the west, where the water is so salt as to be unfit even for the purposes of cultivation, wells exist in abundance, and in most places good water

is found at a depth of about 25 feet. The District is also well supplied with reservoirs and tanks for storing water, not only near towns and villages, but in outlying parts. Though in favourable years a sufficient supply of water is thus maintained, after a season of deficient rainfall many of the tanks dry up, causing much hardship and loss of cattle. The only large lake in the District is situated in the south of the Viramgám Subdivision, about 37 miles south-west of Ahmedabad city. This sheet of water, called the Nal, is estimated to cover an area of 49 square miles. Its water, at all times brackish, grows more saline as the dry season advances, till at the close of the hot weather it has become nearly salt. The borders of the lake are fringed with reeds and other rank vegetation, affording cover to innumerable wild-fowl of every description. In the bed of the lake are many small islands, much used as grazing grounds for cattle during the hot season. In the north of the District, near the town of Parántij, in a hollow called the Bokh, are two smaller lakes. Of these, the larger covers an area of about 160 acres, with a depth of 30 feet of sweet water; and the smaller, with an area of 31 acres, is 8 feet deep in the rains and cold season, but occasionally dries up before the close of the hot weather.

Geologically, Ahmedabad District is an alluvial plain, bounded on the south by a range of hills about 700 feet in height, and in the north-east by sandstone rocks close to the surface.

With the exception of a quarry in the Viramgám Subdivision, from which small slabs of stone are obtained for building purposes, Ahmedabad is without minerals. There are no forests in the District, but the common trees of Guzerat are found near villages and in the fields. The domestic animals are cows, buffaloes, oxen, camels, horses, asses, sheep, and goats. The breed of cattle is held in esteem. Government stud stallions are stationed in the District; and the efforts to improve the local breed by the introduction of Arab sires have been fairly successful. Tigers are found in the jungles in the north-east. The smaller kinds of game are obtained during the cold season in great numbers, especially quail, duck, and snipe. Fish abound.

Population.—As compared with a total of 650,223 persons in 1857, the Census of 1872 returned a total population of 829,637, or 218 persons to the square mile. Of these, 747,028, or 90·03 per cent., including 35,847 Sráwaks or Jains, are Hindus; 81,373, or 9·80 per cent., Musalmáns; 482, or 0·05 per cent., Pársís; 650, or 0·07 per cent., Christians; 46 Jews; and 59 'others.' Percentage of males to the total population, 52·89.

Among the Hindus the merchant or Bania class is the most influential; but, contrary to the rule in other parts of Guzerat, the Sráwak Banias or Jain merchants are superior to the Meshri Banias or

Bráhmanical traders in wealth. The wealthiest members of both classes employ their capital locally, supplying the funds by which the village usurers and dealers carry on their business. Those who do not possess sufficient capital to subsist solely by money-lending, borrow at moderate rates of interest from their caste-fellows of greater wealth, and deal in cloth, grain, timber, or sugar. The poorest of all keep small retail shops or move from place to place hawking articles required by the rural population for their daily consumption. Besides engaging in trade, both the Sráwaks and Meshri Banias are employed as clerks, either in Government or private offices.

Though Ahmedabad is one of the first manufacturing Districts of the Bombay Presidency, the large majority of the people support themselves by agriculture. Among the Hindus the chief cultivating classes are the Kanbis, Rájputs, and Kolis. There is also in most parts of the District a sprinkling of Musalmán cultivators or Borahs, as well as Musalmáns of the common type. The Kanbis, who number 124,152, or 15 per cent. of the total population, are an important class. Many of them are skilled weavers and artisans, and some have risen to high positions in Government service, or have acquired wealth in trade; but the majority are engaged in agriculture, and form the bulk of the peasant proprietors in Guzerat. There is no real difference of caste between Kanbis and Pátidárs, though Pátidárs will not now intermarry with ordinary Kanbis. Both classes are excellent cultivators. Immorality is uncommon among them, and crime rare. They are also more intelligent and better educated than the rest of the agricultural population. The Kanbis are divided into three classes—Lewás, Kadávas, and Anjánas. Female infanticide, owing to the ruinous expenses attached to marriage, having been found prevalent among the Kanbis, the provisions of Act viii. of 1870 were applied to the Kadwá and Lewá Kanbis. Two of the marriage customs of the Kadwá Kanbis are deserving of notice:—(1) When a suitable match cannot be found, a girl is sometimes formally married to a bunch of flowers, which is afterwards thrown into a well. The girl is then considered a widow, and can now be married by the *nátrá* (second marriage) form—a cheap process. (2) At other times they marry a daughter to a man already married, obtaining previously his promise to divorce her as soon as the ceremony is completed. The girl is afterwards given in *nátrá* to any one who may wish to marry her. Next in position to the Kanbis are the Rájputs, who still retain to some extent the look and feelings of soldiers. They are divided into two classes:—(1) Garásiás, or landowners; and (2) Cultivators. The former live a life of idleness on the rent of their lands, and are greatly given to the use of opium. There is nothing in the dress or habits of a cultivating Rájput to distinguish him from a Kanbi, though as farmers they are far inferior in skill and less industrious. Their women, unlike

those of the Garásiás, are not confined to the house, but help their husbands in the labour of the field. The character of the Kolis, as agriculturists, varies much in different parts of the District. In the more central villages, their fields can hardly be distinguished from those cultivated by Kanbis, while towards the frontier they are little superior to other aboriginal tribes. Crimes of violence are occasionally committed among them; but, as a class, they have settled down in the position of peaceful husbandmen—a marked contrast to their lawless practices fifty years ago.

Of the 711,181 Hindus, exclusive of 35,847 Sráwaks or Jains, 65,154 are Shaivas, 293,729 are Vaishnavs, 349,555 are undefined, and 2743 are ascetics or religious mendicants. Of the 81,373 Musalmáns, 69,552 are Sunis, and 11,821 Shiás. Of the 482 Pársís, 446 are Shensháhi, and 36 are Kadmis. Of the 650 Christians, 278 are native converts.

The language chiefly spoken is Guzerati, but in the towns Hindustáni is generally understood.

Of the total population, 236,918 persons, or 28·55 per cent., live in towns containing a population of more than 5000 souls. Exclusive of 197 hamlets, there were in 1872, 881 inhabited State and alienated villages, giving an average of one village to 4⅓ square miles, and 941·69 inhabitants to each village. The total number of houses in 1872 was 260,970, or an average of 67·89 to each square mile. Of these, 71,517 houses, lodging 239,527 persons, or 28·37 per cent. of the entire population, are buildings with walls of stone or fire-baked bricks, and with roofs of tile. The remaining 189,453 houses, accommodating 590,110 persons, or 71·13 per cent., have outer walls of mud or sun-dried bricks and thatched roofs.

The chief towns of the District are—(1) Ahmedabad, 35,284 houses, pop. 116,873; (2) Dholka, 7934 houses, pop. 20,854; (3) Viramgam, 7164 houses, pop. 19,661; (4) Dholera, 3374 houses, pop. 12,468; (5) Dhandhuka, 3686 houses, pop. 9782; (6) Gogo (Ghoghá), 3338 houses, pop. 9571; (7) Parántij, 3345 houses, pop. 8341; (8) Morása, 2296 houses, pop. 7436; (9) Sánand, 2477 houses, pop. 7229; (10) Mándal, 2280 houses, pop. 6774; (11) Pátri, 2961 houses, pop. 6320; (12) Barwála, 1538 houses, pop. 5813; and (13) Ránpur, 1940 houses, pop. 5796.

In consequence of the importance of its manufactures of silk and cotton cloth, the system of caste or trade unions is more fully developed in Ahmedabad than in any other part of Guzerat. Each of the different castes of traders, manufacturers, and artisans forms its own trade guild. All heads of households belong to the guild. Every member has a right to vote, and decisions are passed by a majority of votes. In cases where one industry has many distinct branches, there are several guilds. Thus among potters, the makers of bricks,

of tiles, and of earthen jars, are for trade purposes distinct; and in the great weaving trade, those who prepare the different articles of silk and cotton form distinct associations. The objects of the trade guild are to regulate competition among the members, and to uphold the interest of the body in any dispute arising with other craftsmen. For example, in 1872, the cloth dealers agreed among themselves that they would reduce the rates formerly paid by them to the sizers or *tágiás;* the sizers on their side refused to prepare cloth at the reduced rates. The dispute lasted for about six weeks, and during that time the sizers remained out of work. The matter in dispute was at last settled, and a formal agreement by both parties was drawn up on stamped paper. Again, to modify the competition of the members of a craft, the guild appoints certain days as trade holidays, when any member who works is punished by a fine. This arrangement is found in almost all guilds. A special case occurred in 1873 among the Ahmedabad bricklayers. Men of this class in some cases added 3d. to their daily wages by working extra time in the morning. But several families were thrown out of employment; and accordingly the guild met, and decided that as there was not employment for all, no man should be allowed to work extra time. The decisions of the guild are enforced by fines. If the offender refuses to pay, and the members of the guild all belong to one caste, the offender is put out of caste. If the guild contains men of different castes, the guild uses its influence with other guilds to prevent the recusant member from getting work. Besides the amount received from fines, the different guilds draw an income by levying fees on any person beginning to practise their craft. This custom prevails in the cloth and other industries. But no fee is paid by potters, carpenters, and other inferior artisans. An exception is also made in the case of a son succeeding his father, when nothing has to be paid. In other cases the amount varies, in proportion to the importance of the trade, from £5 to £50. The revenue derived from these fees, and from fines, is expended in feasts to the members of the guild, and in charity. Charitable institutions or *sadávarat*, where beggars are daily fed, are maintained in Ahmedabad at the expense of the trade guilds.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of lands belonging to other territory situated within its limits, Ahmedabad District contains a total area of 2,434,762 acres, of which 2,254,733 acres are arable assessed land, and 180,029 are cultivable waste. Of the arable assessed land, 248,635 acres or 11 per cent. have been alienated by the State; and 1,400,416 acres or 57 per cent. are either *tálukdárí, i.e.* held by large landowners, or *mehwári*—that is, held by chiefs of the classes who pay a tribute instead of a regular assessment.

The two principal varieties of soil are the black and the white. In

many parts of the District both kinds occur within the limits of the same village; but on the whole, the black soil is found chiefly towards the west, and the light-coloured soil in the east. With the help of water and manure, the light-coloured soil is very fertile; and though during the dry weather, especially where subject to traffic, it wears into a loose fine sand, yet after rain has fallen, it again becomes tolerably compact and hard. Two other varieties of soil are less generally distributed; an alluvial deposit of the Sábarmati river, the most fertile soil in the District, easily irrigated, and holding water at the depth of a few feet below the surface; and in the north-east of the District a red stony soil, like that of Belgaum in the south of the Presidency.

As compared with the other British Districts of Guzerat, an important peculiarity of Ahmedabad is the great extent of land held by the class of large landholders called *tálukdárs*, who own the lands of 347 villages, or 41·75 per cent. of the whole number in the District. Their possessions comprise the border land between Guzerat Proper and the peninsula of Káthiáwár. Historically, this tract forms 'the coast where the *débris* of the old Rájput Principalities of that peninsula was worn and beaten by the successive waves of Musalmán and Marhattá invasion.' But these estates are part of Káthiáwár rather than of Guzerat. Their proprietors are Káthiáwár chiefs, and their communities have the same character as the smaller States of the western peninsula. The *tálukdárí* villages are held by both Hindus and Musalmáns. Among the Hindus are the representatives of several distinct classes. The Chudásamás are descended from the Hindu dynasty of Junágarh in Káthiáwár, subverted by the Musalmán kings of Ahmedabad at the end of the 15th century; the Wághelás are a remnant of the Solanki race, who fled from Anhilwára when that kingdom was destroyed by Alá-úd-dín in A.D. 1297; the Gohels emigrated from Marwar many centuries ago; the Jhálas, akin to the Wághelás, were first known as Makwárás; the Thákarás are the offspring of Solanki and Mukwána families, who lost position by intermarriage with the Kolis of Mahi Kánta. The Musalmán families are for the most part relics of the old Muhammadan nobles of Ahmedabad. Besides these are a few estates still held by descendants of favourites of the Mughal or Marhattás rulers; by Molesaláms, converted Rájputs of the Parmár tribe, who came from Sind about A.D. 1450; and by Musalmán officers from Delhi, in the service of the Marhattás. All Parmárs and Musalmáns are called Kasbátis, or men of the Kasbá or chief town, as opposed to the rural chiefs. There are also other Kasbátis, who say that they came from Khorásan to Pátan and received a gift of villages from the Wághelá kings.

Landowners of this class are subject to the payment of a fixed quit-rent to Government. In other respects they are considered absolute

proprietors. In the course of time the estates have become so subdivided that in most villages there are several shareholders, mutually responsible for the payment to Government of the whole quit-rent. One of their number is generally appointed manager, and entrusted with the duties of collecting their shares from the different members. Under the shareholders are tenants, by whom the work of actual cultivation is carried on, and who receive from the landlord a share in the crops, varying from 40 to 50 per cent. In the year 1862 it was found necessary to adopt special measures for the relief of many of the *tálukdárs*, who were sunk in debt; 469 estates were taken under the management of Government, the claims brought against them were inquired into, and the total amount awarded to the creditors fixed at £132,544. Of this sum £121,708 had, up to the end of 1871, been repaid—£54,888 advanced by Government, and £66,820 collected from the revenues of the estates. With the view of ascertaining precisely the area and resources of the different villages, a survey was undertaken and completed in 1860.

As in other parts of Guzerat, there are in Ahmedabad two sets of agricultural operations—one ending in the early or *kharíf*, and the other in the late or *rabí* harvest. The cultivating season is generally considered to begin immediately after the first fall of rain in June or July. A month or two before this, however, manure is carted to the field, and left there exposed to the action of the sun; and after a fall of rain, the manure is spread over the ground and ploughed in. The plough used is of the most simple construction, costing from 6s. to 8s. After two ploughings, each to the depth of 4 or 5 inches, the ground is considered ready for the seed, which is sown by a drill plough. Fourteen English ploughs have been distributed in the District, and they are appreciated by the cultivators, as the land is found to derive lasting benefit from deeper ploughing. The advantages of a free use of manure are admitted by the husbandmen; but at the same time, as a great part of the cow-dung is burnt as fuel, the ground is but scantily manured. The District is not favourable for direct river irrigation, as most of the rivers flow in deep narrow channels with sandy beds. At the same time, there are many spots along the course of the Sábarmati Khári, where, by means of a frame on the banks of the river, water is raised by bagfuls. Well water is also used to a considerable extent. The irrigation from tanks and reservoirs is almost confined to the early part of the cold season, when water is required to bring the rice crops to maturity. The Government irrigation works in the north-eastern Subdivision of the District, constructed at a cost of £28,000, are designed to irrigate once in a three years' rotation 30,000 acres.

The agricultural stock in the possession of the cultivators of State (*khálsá*) villages during 1874-75 was returned at 64,314 ploughs, 22,143

carts, 138,932 bullocks, 125,552 buffaloes, 89,050 cows, 5740 horses, 74,625 sheep and goats, and 9053 asses. Of the total of 907,408 acres under actual cultivation in the same year, grain crops occupied 621,478 acres, or 68·48 per cent.; pulses, 60,634 acres, or 6·68 per cent.; oil seeds, 28,234 acres, or 3·11 per cent.; fibres, 199,391 acres, or 21·97 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 7702 acres, or 0·84 per cent. In addition, 30,626 acres were fallow or under grass.

Natural Calamities.—During the past two centuries and a half, fourteen years have been memorable for natural calamities. Of these, three were in the 17th, five in the 18th, and six in the 19th centuries. In the 17th century, the year 1623 is said to have been a season of great famine; and 1650 and 1686 were years of drought and scarcity. In the 18th century, 1718 and 1747 were years of scarcity, and 1770 was one of pestilence. The year 1739 was marked by a disastrous flood in the Sábarmati. The famine, which reached its height in 1790-91, and from having occurred in Samvat year 1847, is known by the name *sattálo*, lasted through several seasons. In the 19th century, the years 1812-13 were marked by the ravages of locusts; 1819-20 and 1824-25 were years of insufficient rainfall. In 1834 the country was flooded, and the distress was increased by vast swarms of locusts. In 1838 there was a failure of the usual supply of rain. In September 1875, the city of Ahmedabad and three eastern Subdivisions were visited by extraordinary floods of the Sábarmati river. Two iron bridges and a large portion of the town were washed away; and throughout the District 101 villages suffered very severely. In years of famine and scarcity, immigration from Máhrá and other places is said to have added to the local distress.

Roads, Trade, etc.—Before the introduction of railways, the main route of the trade of Central India and Malwa passed through Ahmedabad District. The general means of transit included carts drawn by four or more pairs of bullocks, camels, and pack bullocks. Thirty years ago there were no made roads in the District; and during heavy rain the country became impassable to carts, and traffic was suspended. At present the means of communication are three—by road, by rail, and by sea. Within the last few years, many good roads have been constructed; and for internal communication, the common Guzerat cart, drawn by two, and sometimes four bullocks, is still in use. The Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway runs through the District for a distance of 74 miles. The seaports of the District are Dholera and Gogo; towns at one time of importance, but whose trade has of late years been falling off. The trade of Ahmedabad is almost entirely carried on by local capital. The greater distance from Bombay is said to have given a distinctive character to its merchants, as compared with those of Southern Guzerat. They are more conservative, and less extravagant. Bankers make advances to each other on personal security for short

periods at from 2 to 6 per cent. per annum. In all transactions, when an article worth more than the amount advanced is given in pledge, the rate of interest in the city is reported to be so low as from 3 to 4 per cent. per annum, without any reference to the circumstances of the borrower.

The wages in 1875 of skilled labourers, such as masons, carpenters, and bricklayers, were 1s. 6d. a day; those of able-bodied agricultural labourers, 5d. a day. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1875 were—for a rupee (2s.), wheat, 29 lbs.; rice, 22 lbs.; Indian millet or *joár*, 47 lbs.; millet or *bájra*, 49 lbs.; and split peas or *dál*, 23 lbs. At Khárágorá, about 56 miles north-west of Ahmedabad, are situated the salt works, from which salt is distributed through Guzerat. A railway has been carried into the heart of the works, and a large store has been built at Khárágorá. Minor depôts have been constructed at Ahmedabad, Broach, and Surat. Other stations on the railway are supplied by a contractor. Salt is sold at all depôts and railway stations at one uniform price of 4s. 3d. (Rs. 2. 2.) per 80 lbs. The salt is made not from sea water, but from brine, found at a depth of from 18 to 30 feet below the surface. This brine is much more concentrated than sea water, and contains in proportion about six times as much salt.

Administration. — For administrative purposes, Ahmedabad is divided into seven *táluks* or Subdivisions. The administration in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and three Assistants, of whom two are covenanted civil servants. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are seven courts. In 1874-75 the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts was £10,135. Thirty officers, including six Europeans, share the administration of criminal justice. In the year 1874 the total strength of the District or regular police force was 1228 officers and men; the cost of maintenance was £21,966. These figures show an average of one man to every 3·13 square miles, as compared with the area, and one man to every 675 souls as compared with the population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £5, 14s. 0¼d. per square mile, or 6⅓d. per head of population. In 1875 the Ahmedabad Jail contained a daily average of 458 convicted prisoners, including 48 females, showing one prisoner to every 1811 of the population. The total expenditure was £2755, 12s. 0d., or £5, 17s. 9d. per head. The District contains 19 post offices and 12 telegraph offices.

In 1873-74 the whole amount of revenue raised, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, was £282,152, showing an incidence of 6s. 9½d. per head of population. The land tax alone produced £144,180. The District local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, realized in 1874-75 a total revenue of £18,491, against an expenditure of £16,791. There are eight municipalities in the District, namely:—Ahmedabad city, pop.

116,873; Dholka, 20,854; Viramgám, 19,661; Dhanduka, 9782; Gogo, 9571; Parántij, 8341; Morása, 7436; Mándal, 6774. The total municipal receipts in 1875 amounted to £25,440, and the total expenditure to £21,362. The incidence of municipal taxation varied from 4½d. to 3s. 5d. There are nine dispensaries and two hospitals. During 1874-75, 73,553 patients were treated, of whom 70,508 were out-door, and 3045 in-door patients. There is a lunatic asylum at Ahmedabad city, where, in 1875, 139 persons were treated. In the same year 23,277 persons were vaccinated. The total number of deaths reported in the ten years ending 1875 was 156,208, or an average yearly mortality of 15,620, or 18·8 per 1000.

In the year 1873-74 there were 157 Government schools, or an average of one school for every five villages. Of the whole number, 15 were girls' schools. The average attendance at these schools was 10,122 pupils, or 3·80 per cent. of 265,970, the population between six and twenty years of age. Of the total expenditure on education, £3500 was defrayed by imperial, and £7221 by local and other funds. In Ahmedabad city there are two libraries, three newspapers, and one political association.

Except in the southern tracts lying along the sea-coast, the District, especially towards the north and east, is subject to considerable variations of temperature. Between the months of November and February, periods of severe cold occur, lasting generally from two days to a week. During the hot months, from February to June, the heat is severe; and though the rainfall is light, the climate in the rainy season is hot and close. The average annual rainfall between 1852 and 1861 was 37·35 inches; between 1862 and 1871, 22·89 inches; and in 1875, 27·51 inches were registered. The mean temperature, on an average of the last ten years, is 82·3°, the maximum within doors being 110°, and the minimum 52°.

Ahmedabad (*Ahmadabad*) **City.**—The chief city in the District of the same name, Bombay Presidency, 310 miles north from Bombay, and about 50 miles north-east of the head of the Gulf of Cambay. Lat. 23° 1′ 45″ N., long. 72° 38′ 30″ E. Population (1872), 116,873 souls.

Ahmedabad ranks first among the cities of Guzerat, and second in the Bombay Presidency. It stands on the raised left bank of the Sábarmati river. The walls of the city stretch east and west for rather more than a mile, and enclose an area of about 2 square miles. They are from 15 to 20 feet in height, with 14 gates, and at almost every 50 yards a bastion and tower. The bed of the river is from 500 to 600 yards broad; but except during occasional freshes, the width of the stream is not more than 100 yards. To the north of the city, the channel keeps close to the right bank; and then, crossing through the broad expanse of loose sand, the stream flows close

under the walls immediately above their south-western extremity. The city is built on a plain of light alluvial soil or *gorát*, the surface within the circuit of the walls in no place rising more than 30 feet above the fair-weather level of the river. From its position, therefore, the city is liable to inundation. In 1875 the floods rose above the level of a large portion of the town, causing damage to 3887 houses, valued at about £58,208. Beyond the city walls the country is well wooded, the fields fertile and enclosed by hedges. The surface of the ground is broken at intervals by the remains of the old Hindu suburbs, the ruins of mosques, and Musalmán tombs. The walls of the city were first traced by Ahmad Sháh (1413-1443), the second of the dynasty of the Musalmán kings of Guzerat. In A.D. 1486 they were put in thorough repair by the greatest of his successors, Mahmúd Sháh Begára; and at a cost of £25,000 were, in the year 1832, again restored under the British Government.

The city was founded in the year 1413 by Ahmad Sháh, on the site of the more ancient city of Ashâwal. In 1573 it was, with the rest of Guzerat, subjugated by Akbar. During the 16th and 17th centuries, Ahmedabad was one of the most splendid cities of Western India. There were, according to Ferishta, 300 different wards, each surrounded by a wall. The decay of the Mughal Empire, and the rise of the Marhattá power, led to disastrous changes. Early in the 18th century, the authority of the Court of Delhi in Guzerat had become merely nominal; and various leaders, Musalmán and Marhattá, contended for the possession of Ahmedabad. In the year 1738, the city fell into the hands of two of these combatants, Dámájí Gáekwár and Momin Khán, who, though of different creeds, had united their armies for the promotion of their personal interests, and now exercised an equal share of authority, and divided the revenues between them. The Marhattá chief, Dámájí Gáekwár, having subsequently been imprisoned by the Peshwá, the agent of his Mughal partner took advantage of his absence to usurp the whole power of the city, but permitted Dámájí's collector to realize his master's pecuniary claims. Dámájí, on obtaining his liberty, united his forces with those of Raghunáth Ráo, who was engaged in an expedition for establishing the Peshwá's claims in Guzerat. In the troubles that followed, combined Marhattá armies gained possession of Ahmedabad in 1753. The city was subsequently recaptured by Momin Khán in 1755-56, and finally acquired by the Marhattás in 1757. In 1780 it was stormed and captured by a British force under General Goddard. The British, however, did not then retain it. The place was restored to the Marhattás, with whom it remained until 1818, when, on the overthrow of the Peshwá's power, it reverted to the British Government.

In the days of its prosperity, the city is said to have contained a

population of about 900,000 souls; and so great was its wealth, that some of the traders and merchants were believed to have fortunes of not less than one million sterling. During the disorders of the latter part of the 18th century, Ahmedabad suffered severely, and in 1818, when it came under British rule, was greatly depopulated. In 1851 it contained a population of 97,048, and in 1872 of 116,873 souls. The Hindus, numbering 80,895, or 69·21 per cent. of the entire population, form the wealthiest and most influential class. The Kanbi caste supplies a large proportion of the weavers and other artisans. Though the majority of Musalmáns, who number 23,491, or 20·10 per cent. of the entire population, seek employment as weavers, labourers, and peons, there are a few wealthy families who trade in silk and piece goods.

According to the Census of 1872, 105,195 persons resided in 31,405 houses of the better sort, with walls of stone or fire-baked brick, and with roofs of tile; whilst 3079 houses of the inferior sort, with mud walls and thatched roofs, contained the remaining 11,678 inhabitants. The peculiarity of the houses of Ahmedabad is, that they are generally built in blocks or *pol*, varying in size from small courts of from five to ten houses, to large quarters of the city containing as many as 10,000 inhabitants. The larger blocks are generally crossed by one main street with a gate at each end, and are subdivided into smaller courts and blocks, each with its separate gate branching off frcm either side of the chief thoroughfare.

Ahmedabad was formerly celebrated for its commerce and manufactures in cloth of gold and silver, fine silk and cotton fabrics, articles of gold, silver, steel, enamel, mother-of-pearl, lacquered ware, and fine woodwork. The prosperity of Ahmedabad, says a native proverb, hangs on three threads—silk, gold, and cotton; and though its manufactures are now on a smaller scale than formerly, these industries still support a large section of the population. All the processes connected with the manufacture of silk and brocaded goods are carried on in the city. The raw silk comes through Bombay from China, Bengal, Bussorah, and Bokhárá, the yearly supply of about 200,000 lbs. of silk being valued at £150,000. Bokhárá silk has but recently been introduced in small quantities. It arrives ready made for weaving, and is used only for the woof. Of both the white and yellow varieties of China silk, the consumption is large. Bussorah silk arrives in a raw state. The best is valued at 36s. to 38s. a pound. The Bengal silk holds almost the same position in the market as silk imported from Bussorah. Ahmedabad silk goods find a market in Bombay, Káthiáwár, Rájputána, Central India, Nágpur, and the Nizám's Dominions.

The manufacture of gold and silver thread, which is worked into the richer varieties of silk cloth and brocade, supports a considerable number of people. Many families are also engaged as hand-loom

weavers, working up cotton cloth. In addition, two steam factories, established within the last fifteen years, give employment to about 1000 hands in spinning and weaving.

The common pottery of Ahmedabad is greatly superior to most of the earthenware manufactures of Western India. The clay is collected under the walls of the town, and is fashioned into domestic utensils, tiles, bricks, and toys. To give the clay a bright colour, the potters use red ochre, or *ramchi*, and white earth, or *khadi*, either singly or mixed together. No glaze is employed, but the surface of the vessels is polished by the friction either of a piece of bamboo or of a string of agate pebbles. A few of the potters are Musalmáns, but the majority are Hindus.

Ahmedabad has long been famous for its manufacture of paper, which is exported to various parts of the Bombay Presidency, including the Native States of Guzerat, Káthiáwár, and Cutch. A small quantity finds its way into the territories subject to Sindhia and Holkár. In consequence of foreign competition, the manufacture has of late years declined. At present (1876) its use is confined to the Native States, and the native mercantile classes, whose system of book-keeping and mode of binding require tough and close-grained paper. For the same reason, though stamped paper is now imported from England, the vernacular registers in Government offices are still kept on Ahmedabad paper. Six kinds are manufactured, chiefly from jute rags, in sheets $17\frac{1}{4}$ to $29\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, and in breadth from 16 inches to $27\frac{3}{4}$ inches. The price of a sheet varies, according to size and quality, from $\frac{1}{8}$d. to $2\frac{1}{2}$d. Raw jute or other fibre is seldom worked up, the material commonly used being old gunny bags and other kinds of jute sackcloth mixed with pieces of damaged European paper. The craft, like many other industries in Ahmedabad, is a guild monopoly. The workers are all Muhammadans, and the trade is regulated by an association called the paper guild, *kágdini jamát.*

There are within municipal limits about $27\frac{1}{2}$ miles of road fit for the passage of wheeled vehicles. The principal streets run across the town from north to south. They are kept well watered, and are lighted at night by kerosine oil lamps. There are in all 14 markets. Besides the chief market-places near the centre of the city, grain markets are held in open spaces.

The military cantonment is situated to the north of the city, at a distance of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The road leading to the cantonment, lined with avenues of fine trees, forms a favourite resort of the inhabitants, both in the morning and evening. The camp is the headquarters station of the Northern Division of the Bombay Army, commanded by a Major-General. The cantonment population in 1872 numbered 2799 persons, of whom 899 were fighting men.

The total yearly income of the city municipality amounted in 1875 to £21,075, and the expenditure to £17,422; incidence of municipal taxation, 3s. 5d. per head. There are 18 Government and missionary schools, of which 4 are girls' schools; in addition, about 100 private schools are taught by Bráhmans.

The well-water is brackish and unfit for drinking. The richer classes use for drinking purposes rain-water stored in cisterns in their own houses; the lower orders obtain their supplies either direct from the river or from the water pumped into the city at the expense of the municipality.

The Architecture of Ahmedabad illustrates in a very interesting and characteristic manner the result of the contact of Saracenic with Hindu forms. The vigorous aggressiveness of Islám here found itself confronted by strongly vital Jain types, and submitted to a compromise in which the latter predominate. Even the mosques are Hindu or Jain in their details, with a Saracenic arch thrown in occasionally, not from any constructive want, but as a symbol of Islám. The exquisite open tracery of some of the windows and screens form memorials, which no one who has seen them can forget, of the wonderful plasticity of stone in Indian hands. 'The Muhammadans,' says Mr. James Fergusson, 'had here forced themselves upon the most civilised and the most essentially building race at that time in India; and the Chalukyas conquered their conquerors, and forced them to adopt forms and ornaments which were superior to any the invaders knew or could have introduced. The result is a style which combines all the elegance and finish of Jain or Chalukyan art, with a certain largeness of conception which the Hindu never quite attained, but which is characteristic of the people who at this time were subjecting all India to their sway.' The exigencies of space preclude any attempt at detailed description.

The following list of the remains of most interest in the city and its neighbourhood is supplied to me by the Archæological Surveyor:—

I. Mosques—(1) Ahmad Sháh; (2) Hybat Khán; (3) Sayyid Alam; (4) Malik Alam; (5) Rání Isni (not Sipri); (6) Sidi Sayyid; (7) Kutab Sháh; (8) Sayyid Usmáni; (9) Miá Khán Chishti; (10) Sidi Basir; (11) Muháfiz Khán; (12) Achat Bibi; (13) Dastur Khán; (14) Muhammad Ghous, and the Queen's and Jamá Mosque.

II. Tombs — (1) Ahmad Sháh I.; (2) Ahmad Sháh's Queen; (3) Dariya Khán; (4) Azam Khán; (5) Mír Abu; and (6) Sháh Wazír-ud-dín.

III. Miscellaneous—Ancient well of Mátá-Bhawáni at Asárwa; the *Tín Darwázá*, or Triple Gateway; the Kánkariá Tank; Dádá Harir's Well; the Sháhi Bágh; Azím Khán's Palace, now used as the jail; Tombs of the Dutch.

IV. Mausoleums in the neighbourhood—(1) Sirkej (Sharkej), about 5 miles from Ahmedabad; (2) Bátwá, about 6 miles from Ahmedabad;

and (3) Sháh Alam's buildings, situated half way between Ahmedabad and Bátwá. (For details see *Architecture of Ahmedabad*, by Messrs. Hope and Fergusson. London: John Murray. 1866.)

Ahmednagar (*Ahmadnagar*).—A District in the Deccan, Bombay Presidency, lying between 20° 0′ 0″ and 18° 20′ 0″ N. lat., and 73° 42′ 40″ and 75° 45′ 50″ E. long. Area, 6647 square miles. Pop. (1872), 773,938 souls.

To the north-west and west lies Násik District, and farther east the line of the Godávari river separates Ahmednagar from the Dominions of the Nizám. To the right of the Godávari, and as far as the river Bhima in the extreme south, the limit of the District towards the Nizám's Dominions and Sholápur District is marked by no natural boundary. But to the south-west the line of the Bhima and its tributary, the Kerá, separates Ahmednagar from Poona; and farther north the District stretches westwards, till its lands and those of Tanna District meet on the slopes of the Sahyádri hills. Except in the east, where the Dominions of the Nizám run inwards to within ten miles of the city of Ahmednagar, the District is compact and unbroken by the territories of Native States, or outlying portions of other British Districts.

Physical Aspects.—The principal geographical feature of the District is the chain of the Sahyádri hills, which extend along a considerable portion of the western boundary, throwing out many spurs and ridges towards the east. Three of these spurs continue to run eastwards into the heart of the District, the valleys between them forming the beds of the Prawará and Mulá rivers. From the right bank of the Mulá the land stretches in hills and elevated plateaux to the Gor river, the southern boundary of the District. Except near the centre of eastern boundary, where the hills rise to a considerable height, the surface of the District eastwards beyond the neighbourhood of the Sahyádri hills becomes gradually less broken. The highest peaks in the District are in the north-west; the hill of Kalsubái, believed to attain to a height of more than 5000 feet above the level of the sea; and the Marhattá forts of Kilá Pattá and Harischandragarh. Farther south, about 18 miles west of the city of Ahmednagar, the hill of Párner rises about 500 feet above the surrounding tableland, and 3240 feet above sea level.

The chief river of the District is the Godávari, which for about 40 miles forms the boundary on the north and north-east. Farther south, the streams of the Prawará and Mulá, flowing eastwards from the Sahyádri hills along two parallel valleys, unite, and after a joint course of about 20 miles fall into the Godávari in the extreme north-east of the District. About 20 miles below the junction of the Prawará, the Godávari receives on its right bank the river Dhor, which rises in the high land in the east, and has a northerly course of about 30 miles. The

southern parts of the District are drained by two main rivers, the Sina and the Kerá, both tributaries of the Bhima. Of these, the Sina, rising in the high lands to the right of the Mulá, flows in a straight course towards the south-east. The river Kerá, rising in the Sahyádri range and flowing to the south-east, separates the Districts of Ahmednagar and Poona. The Bhima itself, with a winding course of about 20 miles, forms the southern limit of the District. Besides the main rivers, there are several tributary streams and watercourses, many of which in ordinary seasons continue to flow throughout the year. Except in some of the villages situated in the high lands, where water is scarce, the District is fairly supplied with streams and wells.

The rainy season generally begins in the early part of June, and ends in November. The average annual rainfall during the ten years ending with 1871, was returned at 26·03 inches; in 1875 the total registered was 20·59 inches. The principal diseases are fever and small-pox. Guinea-worm is also a very common complaint. There are no minerals or quarries deserving notice. Though there are no large forests, a considerable area of hill land, covered with small trees, has been set apart to form State reserves. The forest revenue in 1874 amounted to £1778, and the expenditure to £1287.

Of domestic animals, the bullocks, varying in value from £2 to £6, are small and weak, two pairs of them being required to draw a plough. The horses, especially those bred near the river Bhima, though small, are strong, and formerly mounted the famous Marhattá cavalry. Pains are taken by Government to improve the local breed, four stallions being stationed in the District for this purpose. There is also a breed of ponies, strong and enduring, and well suited to the wants of the people. In the forests and mountains there are tigers, bears, panthers, and bison. The rivers contain considerable quantities of fish, for the most part of an inferior description.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 773,938 persons, or 116·43 to the square mile, showing an increase of 19 per cent. as compared with the returns of 1851. Of the total population in 1872, 727,367, or 94·24 per cent., including 12,547 Jains or Sráwaks, were Hindus; 42,435, or 5·48 per cent., Musalmáns; 91 Pársis; 941, or 0·12 per cent., Christians; 67 Jews; 6 members of the Bráhma Samáj; and 1031, or 0·13 per cent., 'others.' The percentage of males in the total population was 51·08. The bulk of the population belongs to the Marhattá race, including the following castes: Kanbi, Máli, Sonár, Sutár, etc. They are generally cultivators and artificers, and, as a rule, much darker in complexion than the Bráhmans. Besides the low or depressed castes,—Mahár, Mángá, Dher, Chámbhár, and Rámosi,—there are many wandering tribes, of which the chief are called Wadári, Kaikádi, and Koláti. Of hill tribes, besides Bhíls, the Thákurs,

Wáralis, and Kolis may be mentioned; they form a distinct race, generally met with in the wilder tracts in the west of the District. The members of these tribes are still fond of an unsettled life, and have to be carefully watched to prevent their resuming their predatory habits. With the exception of a few Boráhs who engage in trade and are well-to-do, the Musalmáns are in poor circumstances, being for the most part sunk in debt. Since the District has come under British management, there has been a large immigration of Márwáris. These men come by the route of Indore and Khandesh, and are almost entirely engaged in money-lending.

Of 716,820 Hindus (exclusive of 12,547 Jains), 189,801 are Shaivas; 2070 Vaishnavas; and 524,949 are undefined, or are ascetics and mendicants. Of 42,435 Musalmáns, 40,665 are Sunis, and 1770 Shiáhs. The 91 Pársis are all Shehensháhi, and the 67 Jews are all Beni-Israel. Of the Christian population, the greater number have been converted from the Mahár and Máng low-castes since 1831, by missionaries belonging to an American Society. Marhattá is the general language of the country, though some of the hill tribes in the west speak a dialect of their own.

There were, in 1872, 1342 inhabited State and alienated villages, giving an average of one village to five square miles, and 576·70 inhabitants to each village. Of the total population, 79,551 persons, or 10·27 per cent., live in towns containing a population of more than 5000 souls. The villages are, as a rule, surrounded by high mud walls; but of late years these fortifications have been allowed to fall into disrepair. The total number of houses in 1872 was 141,652, or an average of 21·31 to each square mile. Of these, 10,520 houses, lodging 60,963 persons, or 7·88 per cent. of the entire population, are buildings with walls of stone or fire-baked brick, and with roofs of tile, cement, or sheet-iron. The remaining 131,132 houses, accommodating 712,975 persons, or 92·12 per cent. of the population, have outer walls of mud or sun-dried bricks, and thatched roofs. The cost of building a large stone house of the better class is reported to vary from £400 to £800. The houses contain, for the most part, very scanty furniture. Even the dwelling of a well-to-do trader has but little except a small stock of brass vessels, some beds of the cheapest description, and a few *razáis* or cotton-stuffed quilts. Unlike the artisans of Guzerat, the mechanics of Ahmednagar do not associate together in trade guilds.

The staff of village servants includes, as a rule, the head-man (*pátel*); the clerk (*kulkarni*); the family priest (*joshi* or *bhat*); the potter (*kumbhár*); the barber (*náhávi*); the carpenter (*sutár*); the blacksmith (*lohár*); the shoemaker (*chámbhár*); the washerman (*parit*); the sweeper (*bhangi*); the watchman (*rakhbwáldár*); the Musalmán priest (*mullá*); the temple keeper (*gurav*). Villagers join together to build

temples or dig wells. The rich give a contribution in money, while the poor supply their labour. Depressed castes, such as Máhárs, Mángs, and Dhers, are not allowed to draw water from the village tank. In most villages the head-man still possesses much influence. He is on all occasions put forward as the official representative of his village. He is also the social head, and on the occasion of a wedding in his family, or of the birth of a son, gives a dinner to the whole community. The village council (*pancháyat*) decides questions of caste and money disputes. The Muhammadan priest or *mullá*, besides attending the mosque, kills the sheep and goats offered by the Hindus as sacrifices to their gods. So thoroughly has this stranger been incorporated with the village community, that Marhattás generally decline to eat the flesh of a sheep or goat unless its throat has been cut by a *mullá* or other competent Musalmán.

Agriculture.—Exclusive of lands belonging to other territory situated within its limits, Ahmednagar District contains a total area of 4,216,576 acres, of which 3,205,055 acres are arable assessed land, and 1,011,521 are uncultivable waste. Of the arable assessed land, 644,558 acres, or 20·11 per cent., have been alienated by the State. Of the remaining assessed land, 2,432,355 acres were in 1874-75 under cultivation. The soil varies much in different parts of the District. Towards the north and east, it is as a rule a rich black loam; while in the hilly parts towards the west, it is frequently light and sandy. By reason of this variation in soil, it is said that a cultivator with ten acres of land in the north of the District is better off than one with a holding ten times as large in the south. Though a single pair of bullocks cannot till enough land to support a family, many cultivators have only one pair, and manage to get their fields ploughed by borrowing and lending bullocks among each other. Garden lands are manured; but, as a rule, for ordinary dry crops nothing is done to enrich the soil. Cultivators are employed in ploughing in March, April, and May; in sowing the early *kharíf* crops in August; in harvesting the early crops in January and February. The threshing out of both crops goes on at the same time, in the months of March and April. There are no tanks for irrigation, but there is a good deal of irrigation from wells, especially in the northern parts. The District, though possessing in many parts a fertile soil and a fair supply of water, not unfrequently suffers from drought. To meet this evil, three large irrigation works have been constructed by the Government. These works together can supply 41,510 acres, but in 1876 water was used for less than 500 acres. The ordinary Bombay land revenue system prevails throughout the District. Lands are held under the survey tenure, bearing rents fixed as far as possible according to the intrinsic value of the soil, and liable to revision at the expiry of a lease generally of thirty years' duration.

The stock in the possession of the cultivators of State villages during the year 1874 was returned at 63,297 ploughs; 23,167 carts; 273,673 bullocks; 48,290 buffaloes; 189,437 cows; 21,378 horses; 400,041 sheep and goats; and 9290 asses. The staple crops are wheat (Triticum vulgare) and gram (Cicer arietinum), in the vicinity of the rivers Godávari and Bhima; Indian millet or *joár* (Sorghum vulgare) throughout the rest of the District, except in the inferior soils near the hills, where the chief crop is millet or *bájra* (Holcus spicatus). These grains are grown both on dry and irrigated lands. Among other products, sugar-cane, *pán* (Piper betel), and vegetables of many kinds are raised in irrigated land. In some of the superior soils near the Godávari, hemp (Crotalaria juncea) is sown. In the north-east, cotton (Gossypium herbaceum) and rice (Oryza sativa) are cultivated to a small extent. Of the total of 2,432,355 acres under cultivation in 1874-75, grain crops occupied 1,720,613 acres, or 79·71 per cent.; pulses, 87,041 acres, or 4·03 per cent.; oil seeds, 10,701, or 0·49 per cent.; fibres, 57,428 acres, or 2·66 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 282,758 acres, or 13·09 per cent.; while 273,814 acres were fallow or under grass.

Ahmednagar District is not subject to blights or floods. Occasionally wheat is affected by a disease called *támbirá*. Under this disease, as the name implies, the grain turns a copper colour and withers away. Though the country is liable to drought, no scarcity deserving the name of a famine has occurred since the District came into the hands of the British. In 1791, 1792, and 1794, there were much misery owing to the increase in the price of grain, occasioned by the disturbed state of the country. A few years later (1803-04) the depredations of the Pindárís, who accompanied the army of Holkár, caused much suffering, and so severe was the distress that children are said to have been sold for food. The price of wheat rose to 4s. a pound. The last severe famine occurred in 1877.

Trade, etc.—In former days a considerable trade between Upper India and the seaboard passed through this District. The carriers were a class of Banjáris called Lumáns, owners of herds of bullocks. But since the opening of the two lines of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, the course of traffic has changed. Trade is carried on almost entirely by means of permanent markets. From all parts of the District, millet, Indian millet, and gram are exported to Poona and Bombay. The imports consist chiefly of English piece-goods, tin sheets, metals, groceries, salt, and silk. The chief manufacturing industries are the weaving of *sárís* or women's robes and turbans, and the manufacture of copper and brass pots. Weaving is said to have been introduced into the District soon after the founding of the city of Ahmednagar (A.D. 1494) by a member of the Bhángriá family, a man of considerable means, and a weaver by caste. Of

late years the industry has risen in importance. This change seems due to the fall in the price of yarn, now spun by steam-power at Bombay. The number of hand looms in Ahmednagar city alone has increased from 213 in 1820 to 2500 in 1875. The yarn consumed in these looms is said to come chiefly from Bombay, either imported from Europe or spun in the Bombay steam factories. Ahmednagar *sáris* have a high reputation; and dealers flock from neighbouring Districts and from the Nizám's Dominions to purchase them. Many of the weavers are entirely in the hands of money-lenders, who advance the raw material and take possession of the article when made up. The workmen are generally paid at the rate of from 2s. to 4s. for a piece of cloth from 14 to 16 cubits long, and from 2 to 2½ cubits wide. A piece of cloth of this size would take a man and his wife from 6 to 8 days to weave. An ordinary worker will earn at his loom about 10s. a month. The weavers, as a class, are said to be addicted to the use of intoxicating liquors. In 1820 this craft was almost entirely confined to members of the weaver caste, Sáli or Kosti. But many classes, such as Bráhmans, Kanbis, and Málís, now engage in the work. Among former industries that have died out, are the manufactures of paper and carpets. The place of the country paper has been supplied by cheaper articles brought from China and Europe, and Ahmednagar carpets have ceased to be in demand.

Except one or two mercantile houses in the city of Ahmednagar, there are no large banking establishments in the District. The business of money-lending is chiefly in the hands of Márwárí Banias, most of them Jains by religion, who are said to have followed the camps of the Mughal armies at the end of the 15th century. They did not, however, commence to settle in the District in large numbers until the accession of the English in the first quarter of the present century. Since then they have almost entirely supplanted the indigenous money-lenders, the Deccani Bráhmans. A Bania from Marwar, anxious to start as a money-lender, generally brings what capital he may have in bills of exchange, or in gold and silver ornaments. On arrival he finds many of his caste fellows and acquaintances ready to give him a helping hand. For a month or two he may travel about, making inquiries and learning the course of local trade. He then decides on some village where he thinks he can see his way to a good business. He rents a small house and opens a shop, offering for sale either piece-goods, grain, or groceries. He is never overreached in a bargain, never sells save at a profit, and is most frugal in his personal expenditure. He very soon commences to lend small sums on the security of household articles or personal ornaments. As his connection gradually enlarges, he advances money on crops and land. His stock of grain increases from year to year. Some of it he sends away to Poona and Bombay, storing the rest under-

ground against a failure of crops or a rise of prices. When he has been eight or ten years in the Deccan, he returns to Marwar to bring some of his family to his new home. As years go on, his profit increases, and he grows wealthy. He builds himself a large house, marries his children into the families of other Márwárí settlers, and probably never again leaves the Deccan.

The rate of interest charged for an advance of grain is from one-half to twice as much as the value of the grain advanced. The same rates are charged whether the grain is advanced for seed or for the support of the borrower and his family. Among the cultivating classes, few are free from debt, and many of the poorer peasants are said to be in hopelessly-involved circumstances. The depressed condition of the cultivators of this District was brought to the notice of Government between 1848 and 1858. In the following years, the high prices of agricultural produce which accompanied the American war helped to free them from their difficulties; but the recent fall in prices, combined with the increased pressure of creditors for payment, was accompanied by much general discontent in the District, and by several serious offences against the persons and property of money-lenders.

The condition of the peasantry in this part of India has since formed a subject of inquiry by a special Commissioner appointed by the Government of India. As a rule, they are sober, indulging in the use neither of liquor nor of opium. An agricultural labourer is usually paid at the rate of about £2 a year and his food. Wages for day-labourers employed in harvesting are, as a rule, 5 sheaves per 100 of the number cut or uprooted and tied by the individual, whether man or woman. For work on the threshing-floor, one pound of grain per 100 trodden out or winnowed is allowed. For other work, the wages are—for a woman, from 2¼d. to 3d.; children, 1½d., paid in cash, weekly or monthly. Masons and carpenters earn from 1s. to 1s. 3d. a day; domestic servants in native houses, 6s. a month, besides food. The average prices of the chief articles of food in 1874-75 were—wheat, 41 lbs. for 2s. (1 R.); rice, 19 lbs.; Indian millet (*joár*), 81 lbs.; millet (*bájra*), 61 lbs.; and split-peas (*dál*), 35 lbs.

Though neither of the two branches of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway pass within its boundaries, the district is well supplied with roads. Of a total length of 427 miles of road within the limits of the District, 58 miles are bridged and metalled, 270 are spread with gravel or sand, and 99 are unmetalled. All the main lines of communication have been constructed by the State at a cost of £77,851, and are kept in repair at a yearly charge of not less than £5400. The metal used is basaltic trap, of which there is a plentiful supply in almost every part of the District. The most convenient route from Bombay to the town

of Ahmednagar is by the south-eastern branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Dhond Station, with which the town is connected by a good road 47 miles long.

A summary of the chief events in the history of the District, which from 1508 to 1636 formed one of the Musalmán kingdoms of the Deccan, will be found in the article on the city of Ahmednagar. On the fall of the Peshwá's power in 1817, the country was formed into a British District.

Administration, etc.—For administrative purposes, the Ahmednagar District is divided into eleven *táluks* or Subdivisions. The administration in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 4 assistants, of whom 3 are covenanted civil servants. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 6 courts. There is also a Court of Small Causes in the city of Ahmednagar. In 1874-75 the total cost of the maintenance of these courts was £9566, and the amount realized from court fees and stamps £18,736. Exclusive of 2459 cases settled in 1874 by the Small Cause Court, the number of cases decided was 10,056; of these, 9294, or 92·43 per cent., were suits brought for the recovery of debts. The average value of the property involved in each case was £6, 7s. od. Twenty-nine officers conduct the administration of criminal justice, of whom 5 are Europeans.

In the year 1874, the total strength of the District or regular police force, exclusive of the staff of 3 officers and 25 men, paid from local sources and stationed in cantonments, was 600. The cost of maintaining the whole force of 628 men was £10,997, 4s. od., of which £337, 4s. od. was raised from local sources. These figures show one man to every 10·58 square miles as compared with the area, and one man to every 1232·38 souls as compared with the population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £1, 13s. 1d. per square mile, or $3\frac{3}{8}$d. per head of the population. In 1875 the Ahmednagar jail contained a daily average of 204 convicted prisoners, including 21 females, showing one prisoner to every 3794 of the population; the total cost was £1316, 4s. od., or £6, 6s. od. per head.

The District contains 23 post offices and a Government telegraph office. There is a military cantonment with a population of 4399, of whom 3080, or 70 per cent., are Hindus; 287, or 6·52 per cent., Musalmáns; and 1032, or 23·46, Christians. Of this population 1337 are fighting men.

The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, in 1874-75 yielded a revenue of £14,056, against an expenditure of £13,653. There are 3 municipalities in the District, namely: Ahmednagar town, population 32,841; Sangamner, 9978; Bhingár, 5752. In 1874 the total municipal receipts amounted to £4876, and the total expenditure to £4068. The incidence of

taxation varied from 8¼d. to 2s. 2½d. per head. Land tax in 1873-74, £132,745.

Besides the civil hospital in Ahmednagar city, there is only one dispensary. In 1874-75 a total of 14,037 patients were treated, of whom 13,710 were out-door, and 327 in-door patients. The number of vaccinations was 24,214 in 1874-75. The people are said to consent willingly to the operation.

The number of deaths reported in the six years ending 1874 was 80,257, showing an average yearly mortality of 13,376, or 17·2 per thousand of the population. During the four years ending 1874, the number of births is returned at 68,330, 35,982 males and 32,348 females, being an average yearly birth-rate of 17,082 souls, or 22 per thousand of the population.

In the year 1873-74 there were 202 Government schools, including 2 girls'-schools, or an average of 1 school for every 6 villages, with an average attendance of 7513 pupils, or 3·20 per cent. of (234,643) the total population between six and twenty years of age. Excluding charges for inspection, £2128 was paid by the State, and £4101 from local funds. In Ahmednagar there is one library and one newspaper.

The chief towns of the District are—(1) Ahmednagar, with 5586 houses, and a population of 32,841 souls; (2) Sangamner, 1843 houses, pop. 9978; (3) Páthardi, 1643 houses, pop. 7117; (4) Kharda, 1662 houses, pop. 6899; (5) Shrigonda, 1118 houses, pop. 6175; (6) Bhingár, 913 houses, pop. 5752; (7) Karjat, 1119 houses, pop. 5535; and (8) Sonai, 767 houses, pop. 5254.

Ahmednagar (*Ahmadnagar*) **City.**—Chief town of the District of the same name, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 5′ N., long. 74° 55′ E.; area, 3 square miles; population in 1877, 32,841 souls. The third among the cities of the Deccan and the seventeenth in the Bombay Presidency. It is situated on the plain of the river Sina, about 12 miles from its source, and on its left bank. The city has a commonplace appearance, most of the houses being of the ordinary Deccan type, built of mud-coloured sun-burnt bricks, with flat roofs. It is surrounded by an earthen wall about 12 feet in height, with decayed bastions and nine gates. This wall is said to have been built about the year A.D. 1562 by King Husáin Nizám Sháh. The adjacent country is closed in on two sides by hills. Ahmednagar was founded in A.D. 1494 by Ahmad Nizám Sháh, originally an officer of the Báhmani State, who, on the breaking up of that Government, assumed the title and authority of an independent ruler, and fixed his capital at this place, named after its founder. It was built on the site of a more ancient town called Bingar. Ahmad Nizám Sháh was succeeded in 1598 by his son Burhan Nizám Sháh. In his reign the State attained high prosperity, until his defeat

by Ibráhim Adil Sháh, king of Bijápur, in A.D. 1546. Burhan Nizám Sháh died in A.D. 1553, and was succeeded by his son Husáin Nizám Sháh. This prince also suffered a very severe defeat from the King of Bijápur, in A.D. 1562, losing several hundred elephants and 660 pieces of cannon; amongst them the great gun now at Bijápur, considered to be one of the largest pieces of brass ordnance in the world. Husáin Sháh of Ahmednagar was subsequently confederated with the Kings of Bijápur, Golgonda, and Bídar, against Rájá Rám of Vijayanagar, whom in A.D. 1564 they defeated, made prisoner, and put to death at Tálikot, in the present British District of Belgaum. Husáin Nizám Sháh, nicknamed *Diváná*, or the insane, from the extravagance of his conduct, was in A.D. 1588 cruelly murdered by his son Miran Husáin Nizám Sháh, who, having reigned ten months, was deposed and put to death. Miran was succeeded by his nephew Ismáil Nizám Sháh, who, after a reign of two years, was deposed by his own father, who succeeded by the title of Burhan Nizám Sháh II., and died in A.D. 1594. His son and successor, Ibráhim Nizám Sháh, after a reign of four months, was killed in battle against the King of Bijápur. Ahmad, a reputed relative, was raised to the throne; but as it was soon after ascertained that he was not a lineal descendant, he was expelled the city; and Bahádur Sháh, the infant son of Ibráhim Nizám Sháh, was placed on the throne under the influence of his great-aunt, Chánd Bíbí (widow of Alí Adil Sháh, king of Bijápur, and sister of Murtáza Nizám Sháh of Ahmednagar), a woman of heroic spirit, who, when the city was besieged by Murad, the son of Akbar, defended in person the breach which had been made in the rampart, and compelled the assailants to raise the siege. These events took place in 1595. In 1599 Prince Danyal Mirzá, son of Akbar, at the head of a Mughal army, captured the city of Ahmednagar. Nominal kings, however, continued to exercise a feeble sway until 1636, when Sháh Jahán finally overthrew the monarchy. In 1759 the city was betrayed to the Peshwá by the commandant holding it for the Government of Delhi. In 1797 it was ceded by the Peshwá to the Marhattá chief Daulat Ráo Sindhia. In 1803 it was invested by a British force under General Wellesley, and surrendered after a resistance of two days. It was, however, shortly after given up to the Peshwá; but the fort was again occupied by the British in 1817, by virtue of the treaty of Poona. On the fall of the Peshwá, Ahmednagar became the headquarters of the Collectorate of the same name.

The population of the city was 17,000 in 1817, and 26,012 in 1850. Some of the Bráhmans are tradespeople; most, however, are employed in work requiring education and intellect. The bulk of the population consists of Súdras, engaged in various occupations. The Musalmáns, who number 6135, are, as a rule, uneducated and indolent.

They are employed in weaving, cleaning cotton, and in domestic service in the houses of well-to-do Hindus. The Márwárís are the most prosperous class. The chief manufacturing industries of the city are the weaving of *sáris*, and the manufacture of copper and brass pots. Ahmednagar is celebrated for the strength and durability of its carpets. Of the articles manufactured in the city, estimated in 1875-76 at about £111,657, cotton and silk cloths contributed £55,687, and copper and brass pots £43,920. One street is devoted to the houses and shops of grain dealers. The shops of the cloth-sellers form another street. The trade of cloth-selling is chiefly in the hands of Márwárís, who combine it with money-lending.

Half a mile to the east of the city stands the fort, built of stone, circular in shape, about 1½ mile in circumference, and surrounded by a wide and deep moat. This building, which stands on the site of a former fortress of earth, said to have been raised in 1488, was erected in its present form by Husáin Nizám Sháh, grandson of Málik Ahmad, in the year A.D. 1559. In the year 1803 the fort was surrendered to the British army after a severe bombardment of two days. The breach then made in the fort is still visible. The city has numerous specimens of Muhammadan architecture, several of the mosques being now converted into Government offices or used as dwelling-houses by European residents. The Collector's office is held in a mosque built in the 16th century. The Judge's Court was originally the palace of a Musalmán noble, built about the year 1600; the buildings at present used as a jail and a civil hospital were formerly mosques. Six miles east of the city, on a hill between 700 and 800 feet above the level of the fort and city, stands a large unfinished tomb, now fitted up as a sanitarium for British troops. Close to the city is a marble tablet, let into the wall, which contains the names of the English officers and men who fell in storming it. Ahmednagar contains an American church, a Pársí *agiári* (fire temple), and two or three Hindu temples, a High School, with a branch and seven vernacular schools. The municipality was established on the 1st March 1855, and has an income of £4157. Since the establishment of the municipality, the roads have been widened and drained, and several new streets opened out. The city is now well supplied with water by various aqueducts from sources ranging from two to six miles from the city. The wells inside the city are brackish.

Ahobalam.—Village and shrine in Kurnool District, Madras. Lat. 15° 9′ 3″ N., long. 78° 46′ 59″ E.; pop. 117; houses, 22. Three pagodas of great local sanctity stand on a hill near the village—one at the foot, one half way up, one at the top. The first is the most interesting, as it contains beautiful relievos of scenes from the Mahábhárata on its walls, and on two great stone porches (*mantapams*) which stand

in front of it, supported by pillars 8 feet in circumference, hewn out of the rock.

Ahpyouk. — Revenue circle, Henzada District, British Burma; situated in a great rice-producing country, watered by the river Irrawaddy, and containing many lakes and fisheries, the chief being Gnyee-re-gyee, 3 miles long, ½ mile broad, and 15 feet to 20 feet deep during dry season. Revenue (1876), £1624; pop. 6605.

Ahraura.—Town in Mirzapur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 1′ 15″ N., long. 83° 4′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 9019, including 8006 Hindus, and 1013 Muhammadans; area, 123 acres; 12 miles south-east of Chunar, 18 miles south of Benares. Local trade in grain. Railway station on East Indian Railway at Ahraura road, 10 miles north of the town.

Aiávej.—Petty State of Undsarviya in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Consists of 2 villages with 2 independent tribute-payers. Revenue in 1875, £520. Pays tribute of £28 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Lat. of Aiávej town, 21° 24′ N., long. 71° 47′ E.

Aigur.—Old capital of the Province of Balam, now in Hassan District, Mysore State, situated on river of same name. Lat. 12° 48′ N., long. 75° 0′ 53″ E. An early scene of coffee cultivation.

Aihar.—Town in Rae Bareli District, Oudh, 5 miles from Dalamau. Pop. (1869), 2734, of whom 720 were Sivaite Bráhmans. The village is locally called Nuniágaon, it being considered unlucky to pronounce the true name of the place.

Aikota.—Town in Madras.—*See* AYAKOTTA.

Aing-Gyee.—Large village in Henzada District, British Burma, north of Lake Doora, on the margin of a great rice-producing area. Inhabitants entirely agricultural.

Aing-ka-Loung. — Revenue circle in Rangoon District, British Burma. The surface of the country is flat, and the greater part subject to inundation; the whole circle is covered with the 'Great Eng-ta-ra Forest,' excepting the portions high enough to escape inundation. These are planted with rice, cotton, and tobacco. The 5 principal fens are named A-la-Ohwot, Taw-kha-ra, Kalaw-koon, Matha, and Meng-la; the inhabitants of some of the villages are largely employed in fishing. Pop. (1876), 3623; gross revenue, £2059.

Airí.—Teak forest in Mandla District, Central Provinces, under the Forest Department. Lat. 22° 38′—22° 40′ N., long. 80° 43′ 45″—80° 46′ 45″ E.; area, 5 square miles. Conveniently situated at the junction of the Burhner and Hálon.

Aiyar.—River, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 7′—12° 39′ 45″ N., long. 77° 49′ 0″—77° 49′ 15″ E.

Ajaigarh.—Native State and fort in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces; lying between 24° 45′ 30″ and 24° 58′ N. lat., and between

80° 4′ 45″ and 80° 22′ E. long.; bounded on the north by the Charkhári State and Bánda District, on the south and east by Panna State, and on the west by the Chhatarpur State. Estimated area, 340 square miles; estimated population, 46,000 souls. The principality consists of the famous hill-fortress of Ajaigarh, with the surrounding territory, besides an outlying tract between Jaso and Panna. The Rájá lives at Naushahr, at the northern base of the hill, on which is perched the ancient fort. The eminence is composed of granite, overlaid by a bed of sandstone, and presenting all round a perpendicular face of rock some 50 feet in height. North-east of the main hill, and separated from it by a deep ravine, rises the opposite height of Bihonta. The fort stands on the southern crag, and is enclosed by a rampart running round the bold face of the rock. It is composed in part of exquisitely-carved shafts, pedestals, or cornices, the relics of ancient Jain temples. Over the whole surface of the plateau lies scattered a profusion of ruins, statues, and stone fragments. In their perfect state the temples must have been of great magnificence. The fortress probably dates back to the 9th century of our era. In the troubled period which preceded the British occupation of Bundelkhand, Ajaigarh fell into the hands of one Lachhman Dawa, a marauding chieftain; but in 1809, owing to his persistent turbulence, the fort was attacked by the British forces, and taken after a hot engagement. Lachhman Dawa then withdrew, and the British granted the principality to Bakht Sinh, the former Bundela ruler. His representative still holds the position of Rájá, and pays a tribute of £701. The whole revenue from all sources amounts to about £17,500. Ajaigarh is distant 16 miles from Kálinjar, 47 miles from Bánda, and 130 miles from Allahabad.

Ajanta (*Adjunta*) or **Indhyádri.**—Hill ranges at the south-west extremity of Berar, running into the Nizám's Dominions, and skirting the Bombay District of Khandesh. They support the northern side of the great table-land of the Deccan, and form the watershed of the feeders of the Gódávari and Táptí rivers. With their spurs and continuation, known as the Sátmál range, they cover the whole of the Básim District, and the southern half of District Buldána, rising into peaks of over 1700 feet in height. They consist, excepting in their alluvial river valleys, entirely of trap; well-wooded, picturesque, abounding in game, they form the retreats of the aboriginal tribes. One of their passes in the Nizám's Dominions contains the famous rock temples of Ajanta.

Ajanta (*Adjunta*).—A village and ravine celebrated for its cave temples, in the south-west of the Ajanta or Indhyádri Hills, near to the Berar frontier, but within the Nizám's Dominions. Lat. 20° 32′ 30″ N., long. 75° 48′ E.; 220 miles north-east by east of Bombay, 55 miles north-north-east from Aurangabad, and 24 miles north of the field

of Assaye. The caves have been identified as those mentioned by Hiouen Thsang on the eastern frontier of the kingdom of Pulikesi. The best route for visiting these striking memorials of Buddhism is by the G. I. P. Railway from Bombay to Pachora Station (231 miles), and thence by bullock cart to Fardapur, where there is a traveller's rest-house. A bridle path leads from Fardapur to the ravine of Lenapur (3½ miles), in which the caves lie; and it is by this route, not from the village of Ajanta above the pass, that they are best visited. The defile is wooded, lonely, and rugged, the caves being excavated out of a wall of almost perpendicular rock, about 250 feet high, sweeping round in a hollow semicircle, with the Wághará stream below, and a wooded rocky promontory jutting out from its opposite bank. The caves extend about a third of a mile from east to west in the concave scarp composed of Amygdaloid trap, at an elevation of 35 to 110 feet above the bed of the torrent. The ravine, a little higher up, ends abruptly in a waterfall of seven leaps (*sát kúnd*), from 70 to over 100 feet in height.

Twenty-four monasteries (*viháras*) and five temples (*chaityas*) have been hewn out of the solid rock, many of them supported by lofty pillars, richly ornamented with sculpture, and covered with highly-finished paintings. Mr. Fergusson's admirable woodcuts and descriptions (*History of Indian Architecture*, pp. 122-159, ed. 1876) have brought these beautiful excavations within reach of the English public. I condense the following brief description chiefly from materials furnished to me by Mr. Burgess, Archæological Surveyor to the Government of Bombay. The fine *chaityas* or cave temples for public worship are usually about twice as long as they are wide, the largest being 94½ feet by 41¼. The back or inner end of the *chaitya* is almost always circular; the roofs are lofty and vaulted, some ribbed with wood, others with stone cut in imitation of wooden ribs. A colonnade cut out of the solid rock runs round each, dividing the nave from the aisles. The columns in the most ancient caves are plain octagonal shafts without bases or capitals; in the more modern ones they have both bases and capitals, with richly ornamented shafts. Within the circular end of the cave stands the *Daghoba* (relic-holder), a solid mass of rock, either plain or richly sculptured, consisting of a cylindrical case supporting a cupola (*garbha*), which in turn is surmounted by a square capital or tee (*toran*). The twenty-four *viháras*, or Buddhist monasteries, containing cells, are usually square in form, supported by rows of pillars either running round them and separating the great central hall from the aisles, or disposed in four equidistant lines. In the larger caves a verandah cut out of the rock, and with cells at either end, shades the entrance; the great hall occupies the middle space; with a small chamber behind, and a shrine containing a figure of Buddha enthroned.

The walls on all the three sides are excavated into cells, the dwelling-places (*grihas*) of the Buddhist monks. The simplest form of *vihára* or monastery is a verandah hewn out of the face of the precipice, with cells opening from the back into the rock. Very few of the caves seem to have been completely finished; but nearly all of them appear to have been painted on the walls, ceilings, and pillars, inside and out. Even the sculptures have all been richly coloured. Twenty-five inscriptions—seventeen painted ones in the interior, eight rock inscriptions engraved outside—commemorate the names of pious founders in the Sanskrit and Magadhí tongues.

One monastery has its whole façade richly carved, but as a rule such ornamentation is confined in the monasteries (*viháras*) to the doorways and windows. More lavish decoration was bestowed upon the temples (*chaityas*);—the most ancient of them have their façades sculptured, while in the more modern ones the walls, columns, entablatures, and *daghoba* are covered with carving. The sculpture shows little knowledge of art, and consists chiefly of Buddhas, or Buddhist teachers, in every variety of posture, instructing their disciples.

'The paintings,' writes the Archæological Surveyor, 'have much higher pretensions, and have even been considered superior to the style of Europe in the age when they were probably executed. The human figure is represented in every possible variety of position, displaying some slight knowledge of anatomy; and attempts at foreshortening have been made with surprising success. The hands are generally well and gracefully drawn, and rude efforts at perspective are to be met with. Besides paintings of Buddha and his disciples and devotees, there are representations of streets, processions, battles, interiors of houses with the inmates pursuing their daily occupations, domestic scenes of love and marriage and death, groups of women performing religious austerities; there are hunts; men on horseback spearing the wild buffalo; animals, from the huge elephant to the diminutive quail; exhibitions of Cobra di capello, ships, fish, etc. The small number of domestic utensils depicted is somewhat remarkable,—the common *chátti* and *lotá*, a drinking-cup, and one or two other dishes, a tray, an elegantly-shaped sort of jug having an oval body and long thin neck, with lip and handle, together with a stone and roller for grinding condiments, being all that are observable. The same lack of weapons of war, either offensive or defensive, is also to be noticed. Swords, straight and crooked, long and short, spears of various kinds, clubs, bows and arrows, a weapon resembling a bayonet reversed, a missile like a quoit with cross-bars in the centre, and shields of different forms, exhaust the list. There is also a thing which bears a strong resemblance to a Greek helmet, and three horses are to be seen yoked abreast, but whether they were originally attached to a war

chariot cannot now be determined. The paintings have been in the most brilliant colours—the light and shade are very good; they must have been executed upon a thick layer of stucco, but whether whilst it was wet or dry is difficult to say. In many places the colour has penetrated to a considerable depth.' See also reports of Mr. Griffiths, *Indian Antiquary*, vol. ii. p. 152, and vol. iii. p. 25.

The cave temples and monasteries of Ajanta furnish a continuous narrative of Buddhist art during 800 years, from shortly after the reign of Asoka to shortly before the expulsion of the faith from India. The oldest of them are assigned to about 200 B.C.; the most modern cannot be placed before the year 600 A.D. For many centuries they enable us to study the progress of Buddhist art and of Buddhistic conceptions uninfluenced by Hinduisms; the chief interest of the latest *chaitya*, about 600 A.D., is to show how nearly Buddhism had approximated to Bráhmanism before the convulsions amid which it disappeared. The liberality of the Indian Government had enabled Major Gill to take up his residence in Ajanta, and to prepare a magnificent series of facsimiles from the frescoes. These unfortunately perished in the fire at the Crystal Palace in 1860, but reductions of the more important of them exist in Mrs. Speir's *Life in Ancient India*, and renewed efforts are being made by Government to render the matchless art-series of Ajanta available to the western world.

Ajanúr.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 12° 20′ N., long. 75° 7′ 15″ E.; pop. 5162; houses, 1266. Situated on the coast road about half way between Mangalore and Cannanore (Kananúr).

Ajgain.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, 10 miles from Unao town, and a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, 24 miles from Lucknow. Pop. in 1869, 2365, of whom 2280 were Hindus and 85 Muhammadans. Formerly called Bhánpárá, after its founder, but its name altered to the present one, as being more auspicious (literally the town of Aja, one of the names of Brahma).

Ajgáon.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, on the banks of the Sai river. Pop. (1869), 3481, of whom 3422 were Hindus and 59 Musalmáns. Belongs to a Rájput family of the Janwár tribe, who are said to have founded it about 250 years ago. Noted for its excellent tobacco cultivation. Government school.

Ajmere (*Ajmer*) **Mhairwárá.**—An isolated British District in Rájputána, lying between 25° 30′ and 26° 45′ N. lat., and between 73° 45′ and 75° 0′ E. long., with an area of 2710 square miles, and a population in 1872 of 316,590 souls. The District comprises the two tracts known as AJMERE and MHAIRWARA (the latter of which see separately), and is entirely surrounded by Native States. It is bounded on the north by Kishengarh and Marwar; on the west by Marwar; on the

south by Meywar; and on the east by Kishangarh, Jeypore, and Meywar. The two tracts originally formed distinct Districts, but they are now united under a Deputy-Commissioner of Ajmere Mhairwárá, who has his headquarters at the town of Ajmere. The united District forms also a Chief Commissionership; the Agent of the Governor-General for Rájputána, with his headquarters at ABU, being *ex officio* Commissioner of Ajmere.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Ajmere-Mhairwárá occupies the crest of the great Rájputána watershed; the rain which falls upon the summit finding its way either by the Chambal into the Bay of Bengal, or by the Lúni into the Gulf of Cutch. The plateau on whose centre stands the town of Ajmere may be considered as the highest point in the plains of Hindustán, and from the circle of hills which hem it in, the surrounding country slopes away on every side—toward river valleys on the east, south, and west, or the desert region on the north. The Aravalli range, which divides the plain of Marwar from the high tableland of Meywar, forms the distinguishing feature of the District. Rising first from the alluvial basin of the Jumna into the ridge at Delhi, this broken chain runs south-westward across the Rájputána States, and crops out to a considerable height near the town of Ajmere, where it assumes the form of several parallel hill ranges. The greatest elevation, on which is perched the fort of Táragarh, rises immediately over the city to 2855 feet above sea level, or about 1300 feet above the valley at its base. The Nágpahár or Serpent hill, 3 miles west of Ajmere, attains a scarcely inferior elevation. About 10 miles from the city, the hills subside for a short distance; but in the neighbourhood of Beáwar, the headquarters of Mhairwárá, they reappear once more as a compact double ridge, enclosing the valley *parganá* from which that station derives its name. On the Marwar side, the Aravalli chain gradually becomes bolder and more precipitous, till it finally merges into the Vindhyan system near the isolated height of Abu. West of the Nágpahár, on the other hand, the plains become an unbroken sea of barren sand. Owing to its elevated position at the centre of the watershed, Ajmere Mhairwárá possesses no rivers of any importance. The BANAS, its principal stream, rises in the Aravalli hills, 40 miles N.W. of Oodeypore (Udaipur), and skirts the S.E. frontier without entering the District. During the rains it becomes unfordable, and, as no ferries exist, travellers from Kotah and Deoli only cross into Ajmere by means of extemporized rafts. Four other insignificant rivulets—the Khari Nadí, the Dái Nadí, the Sábarmati, and the Saraswati—swell into violent torrents after heavy rains. But the great tank embankments form the most interesting feature in the hydrography of the District. They are constructed by damming up the gorges of hill streamlets, and several of them date back to periods long anterior to the British occupation.

As many as 419 of these valuable works now irrigate and fertilize the District, due in most part to the untiring energy and benevolent exertions of Col. Dixon, who administered various portions of this tract from 1836 to 1857. The tanks become dry by the month of March, and their moist beds are then cultivated for the spring crops. Four small natural reservoirs, scarcely deserving the name of lakes, are also found in the depressions of the sandhills, the most important of which is the sacred lake of PUSHKAR. The Aravalli range abounds in mineral wealth, but no mining operations are at present carried on. The District was entirely denuded of trees long before the British period, but great pains have lately been taken for re-afforesting the arid hillsides.

History.—Tradition refers the foundation of Ajmere to the eponymous Rájá Aja, a Chauhán Rájput, about the year 145 A.D. Aja at first attempted to build his stronghold on the Nágpahár, where the proposed site is pointed out at the present day; but as his evil genius destroyed each night the walls erected during the day-time, the Rájá transferred his fortress to the neighbouring hill of Táragarh. In the valley below, known as Indurkot, he founded a city which he called after his own name, Ajmere. Finally, toward the close of his life, he retired as a hermit to a mountain gorge 10 miles from his newly-built capital, where a temple still commemorates his death-place. Authentic history begins, at Ajmere, with the advent of the Muhammadan conquerors. In A.D. 685, Doli Rái, Chauhán ruler of Ajmere, joined the Hindu alliance in resisting the first isolated efforts of Musalmán aggression under Muhammad Kásim, the Arab conqueror of Sind, but was defeated and slain by the invaders. His successor, Manik Rái, founded Sámbhar, from which the Chauhán princes thenceforth derived their title. We hear no more of the little Rájput State till the year 1024, when Sultán Mahmúd took the route *viâ* Ajmere in his famous expedition against the temple of Somnáth. On his way he sacked Ajmere, and destroyed the gods and temples; but the fort of Táragarh gave shelter to the townspeople, and Mahmúd, who had no leisure for sieges, proceeded on his desolating course to Guzerat. On his way back he had intended marching by the Ajmere route, but his guides misled him into the desert. The Ajmere Rájputs hung upon his army, inflicting severe losses, while thousands of the Muhammadans died of thirst. The guides confessed they had revenged Somnáth, and were put to death. Visáladeva, or Bisáldeo, who shortly afterwards ruled at Ajmere, made himself famous by the construction of an important tank, the Bisál-ságar. He also conquered Delhi from the wild Tuárs. He also subdued the hill tribes of Mhairwárá, whom he enslaved as drawers of water in the streets of Ajmere. Aná, grandson of Bisáldeo, constructed the embankment which forms the Anáságar lake, where Sháh Jahán

long afterwards erected a noble range of marble pavilions. Someswar, the third in descent from Aná, married the daughter of Anang Pál Tuár, king of Delhi; and from this marriage sprang Prithvi Rájá, the last of the Chauhán dynasty, who was adopted by Anang Pál, and thus became ruler of Delhi and Ajmere. This marks the culminating point in the independent history of the District. Ajmere had ranked with Delhi, Kanauj, and Ujjain as one of the Rájput breakwaters against Muhammadan invasion. The united kingdom of Delhi and Ajmere was now submerged beneath the advancing tide, and the downfall of the inner Rájput States, Kanauj and Ujjain, followed. In 1193 A.D., Prithvi Rájá, the king of Delhi and Ajmere, was defeated and put to death in cold blood by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, and the Muhammadan power was thenceforth established over Upper India. Shortly afterwards, the Musalmán leader took Ajmere, massacred such of the inhabitants as opposed him, and reserved the rest for slavery. He then granted the country to a relative of Prithvi Rájá, under a heavy tribute. In the following year, Shaháb-ud-dín overthrew the Rahtor kingdom of Kanauj, after which event the Rahtor clan emigrated to Marwar. The Hindu Rájá of Ajmere did not long remain faithful to his Muhammadan suzerain. He plotted with the Rahtors and Mhairs to throw off his dependence on Kutab-ud-dín; but Kutab-ud-dín marched unexpectedly against him in the hot season, and the Ajmere Rájá shut himself up in his fortress, and in despair threw himself and his wives on the funeral pile. The Musalmán leader then attacked the Mhairs and Rájputs, and after some reverses, in the course of which he found himself in turn besieged in Ajmere, succeeded in annexing the Aravalli country to his own dominions. Sayyid Husáin received charge of the Táragarh fort; but after the death of Kutab-ud-dín in 1210 the Rahtors and Chauháns joined in a night attack on Táragarh, and massacred the garrison to a man. The shrine of Sayyid Husáin still forms the most conspicuous object at Táragarh; his tomb, with those of his comrades and his celebrated charger, standing within an enclosure which bears the name of Gunj Sháhidan, or Treasury of Martyrs. More than three centuries later, the greatest of the Mughal sovereigns, Akbar, vowed that if a son were born to him, he would walk on foot to this shrine. His eldest son, Salím, was born in 1570, and the Emperor walked in procession to Ajmere and offered thanks at the Martyrs' tomb. Shams-ud-dín Altamsh restored the authority of the Delhi princes, which was not again disturbed until the invasion of Timúr. After the sack of Delhi by the Mughals, and the extinction of the house of Tughlak, Ráná Kumbho of Meywar took advantage of the prevailing anarchy to sieze Ajmere; but the adventurous Hindu was soon after assassinated, and the city fell into the hands of the Muhammadan kings of Malwa in 1469. The Malwa princes retained their

hold upon the tract until 1531, when their kingdom was merged in that of Guzerat. Thereupon, Máldeo Rahtor, prince of Marwar, took possession of Ajmere. He strengthened the fortress of Táragarh, and built in part a lift to raise water from a spring at its foot; but the work, which still stands as solid as at its first construction, was never completed. For twenty-four years the Rahtors held the District, after which period it passed under the rising power of Akbar in 1556. The great Mughal administrator included the territory in a *subah*, which took its name from the town of Ajmere, and comprised the whole of Rájputána. It formed an integral portion of the Mughal empire for 194 years, from the reign of Akbar himself to that of Muhammad Sháh. The District was an appanage of the royal residence at Ajmere, where the family of Babar had a country-seat to maintain their authority among the warlike Rájput chieftains of the surrounding tracts. Akbar built himself a fortified palace just outside the city. Jahángir and Sháh Jahán often honoured it with their presence; and Sir Thomas Roe, the ambassador of James I., presented his credentials to the former emperor at the Ajmere Court. Our envoy also visited a 'house of pleasure of the king's,' behind the Táragarh hill, 'a place of much melancholy delight and security.' Ajmere formed the capital of the Mughal empire during several years of Jahángir's reign. Thomas Coryat, the pedestrian traveller of the 17th century, or 'world's foot post,' as he called himself, walked from Jerusalem to Ajmere, and spent only £2, 10s. 0d. on the road. He dated his book at Ajmere:—'Thomas Coryat, traveller for the English Wits, greeting. From the Court of the great Mogul at Asmere' (London, 1616). A vivid account of the Court at Ajmere, of the city, and of its neighbourhood, is preserved in Sir Thomas Roe's *Journal*, 1615, 1616. It was at Ajmere, too, that Aurangzeb defeated the forces of his unfortunate brother Dárá, whose flight and privations are graphically narrated by the traveller Bernier, an eye-witness of his miserable retreat. After the fall of the Sayyids in 1720, during the first stages of decline in the Mughal empire, Ajít Sinh, of Marwar, seized on Ajmere, and murdered the imperial governor. Muhammad Sháh recovered the post for a while, but ten years later he yielded it once more to Abhay Sinh, who succeeded his father as ruler of Marwar. Rám Sinh, son of Abhay Sinh, during the course of a territorial quarrel with his uncle, called in the treacherous aid of the Marhattás, under Jái Appa Sindhia. After a series of intrigues and counter-plots, whose details defy simplification, Jái Appa was murdered, and an arrangement was effected in 1756, by which Bijái Sinh, a cousin and rival of Rám Sinh, surrendered the suzerainty of Ajmere to the Marhattás, being himself confirmed in his possession as a vassal on payment of a triennial tribute. For the next thirty-one years, the Marhattás held the District; but in 1787, when Madhojí Sindhia invaded Jeypore (Jaipur), the

Rahtors rose in defence of their brethren, recaptured Ajmere, and annulled their tributary engagement. Three years later, the Marhattás, led by De Boigne, defeated the Rahtors at Pátan, and once more occupied Ajmere, which they did not again lose till its cession to the British. After the Pindári war, Daulat Ráo Sindhia made over the District of Ajmere to our Government, by treaty dated June 25, 1818. From that epoch, the history of Ajmere becomes merely administrative and social. In 1820, the tract known as MHAIRWARA was conquered and annexed; but its annals will be found under the separate heading. The long incumbency of Colonel Dixon, who took a deep interest in the welfare of the District and its people, was productive of much good to Ajmere. Tanks and other public works were vigorously pushed forward, while the fiscal arrangements were adjusted in such a manner as to encourage agriculture and develop commerce. So successful were these measures in winning the confidence of the people, that the Mutiny of 1857 left this outlying region almost unaffected. On the 28th of May, two regiments of Bengal infantry and a battery of Bengal artillery revolted at the military station of Nusseerabad (Nasírabad); but the European residents were protected by a regiment of Bombay infantry, while a detachment of the Mhairwárá battalion adequately guarded the Ajmere treasury and magazine. Civil government received no interruption; the mutinous regiments marched direct to Delhi, and the agricultural classes held entirely aloof from the revolt. The great famine of 1868-69 is the only event which has since troubled the quiet annals of Ajmere-Mhairwárá.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the total population of Ajmere-Mhairwárá at 316,590 souls, or 316,032 exclusive of Europeans, inhabiting an area of 2710 square miles, and distributed among 91,199 houses. The latter figures yield the following averages: Persons per square mile, 117; houses per square mile, 33·6; persons per house, 3·4. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 203,535; females, 112,497: proportion of males, 64 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—adults: males, 141,049; females, 72,353: total, 213,402, or 67·52 per cent. of the whole population—children: boys, 62,486; girls, 40,144: total, 102,630, or 32·48 per cent. of the whole population. The Parliamentary abstract for 1876-77 shows a total of 396,889. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, Ajmere-Mhairwárá is still an essentially Hindu District, in spite of its long subjection to the Muhammadan power and the continued presence of the Mughal court. As many as 252,996 souls, or 80 per cent. of the population, profess some sort of Hinduism; while only 62,456 souls, or 20 per cent. of the population, belong to the faith of Islám. Amongst the Hindus, 34,616 are Buddhists or Jains, 72 are Síkhs, and 218,308 remain adherents of the ancestral creed. The District also contains

65 Pársis, 558 Europeans, and 249 native Christians. The agricultural population amounted to 132,702 persons. As regards the distinctions of caste or tribe, the Bráhmans numbered 15,389, of whom 1945 live in Mhairwárá, and have no dealings with the other Bráhmans, who consider them an inferior class. The Rájputs are returned at 13,931 souls, and hold no land as cultivators, though they have large possessions under the peculiar forms of tenure known as *tálukdárí* and *bhúm*, some account of which will be found in a later section. Amongst the various clans or subdivisions of Rájputs, the Rahtors greatly preponderate in numbers, wealth, and power, forming the social aristocracy of Ajmere, and possessing feudal rights over a large portion of the soil. They are still warlike and indolent, much addicted to the use of opium, and proud of their distinguished descent. Every man among them carries arms, and none will touch a plough except under the extreme pressure of necessity. The Chauháns, once the dominant Rájput clan, have not now a single representative left in Ajmere. The Játs and Gújars comprise the original cultivators of the soil, returned at 28,399 and 17,379 souls respectively. In Ajmere, as elsewhere, the Játs possess a fine physique and excellent agricultural qualities; they have monopolized the best villages, and display great energy in digging wells and improving their land. The Gújars, on the other hand, keep up their usual character as lazy cultivators, with a greater aptitude for grazing than for tillage. The minor castes are very numerous, but present no specially interesting features. All the inhabitants of Mhairwárá bear the common title of Mhairs or hillmen, which, however, must be regarded rather as a geographical than as a social or religious distinction. Though ordinarily classed as Hindus, they are little fettered by the observances of caste, which have never been rigidly introduced among their wild gorges and jungle-clad hill-sides. Even the Bráhmans freely partake of meat and spirits, while their religion centres around purely local deities, not without noticeable reminiscences of primitive fetishism. The present tendency of the Mhairs seems to take the direction of an approach towards Islám. For long the Mhairs formed a difficult problem to the English Government. Previous to our accession, they had been accustomed to live, almost destitute of clothing, by the produce of their herds, by the chase, and by plunder. But soon after the cession to us of Ajmere in 1818, the Mhair country came under British influence, and the predatory instincts of the people have at the same time been controlled and utilized by forming them into a Mhairwárá battalion. As the peaceful results of British rule developed, and the old feuds between the Mhairs and their Rájput neighbours died out, the Mhair battalion was transformed into a police force. The men strongly objected to this change, and pleaded a long period of loyal usefulness to the State. They have accordingly

been again erected into a military battalion, and brought upon the roll of the British army. The District contains four towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls,—namely, Ajmere (26,569), Beáwar or Náyánagar (9544), Nusseerabad (Nasírabad) (18,000), and Kekri (about 5000). Ajmere is the headquarters of the united District, and Beáwar of the Mhairwárá tract; Nusseerabad (Nasírabad) forms the principal cantonment; Kekri has a declining trade, now transferred to Ajmere. The District includes no other town of more than local importance, with the exception of Pushkar, a famous place of Hindu pilgrimage. Márwárí and Hindustáni are the prevailing languages.

Agriculture.—In Ajmere-Mhairwárá, as in the other parts of Rájputána, cultivation is carried on with great difficulty, owing to the insufficient and precarious nature of the water supply. Artificial irrigation is thus rendered imperatively necessary, while famines and scarcity recur with almost regular severity. The chief crops comprise barley, *joár*, *til*, and *bájra*, which occupy respectively 20, 17, 9, and 8 per cent. of the cultivated area. Cotton and grain rank next in extent, while sugar-cane is only grown in the Pushkar valley, where it can be raised without irrigation. Poppy for opium covers a small area in Beáwar and Todgarh, principally for exportation. Manure is largely used in Mhairwárá, but less frequently in Ajmere Proper. Mhairwárá has also 40 per cent. of its cultivated area under irrigation, while in Ajmere the proportion so treated is only 25 per cent. The condition of the people is still far from satisfactory. They depend for their lives in times of scarcity upon the money-lending classes, who derive their capital ultimately from the Seths of Ajmere. The mortgagees of land draw more than the landlord's share from the produce of the soil as interest upon advances. The dangerous facility of borrowing, produced by the influx of capital into the District since the introduction of British rule, has plunged all classes into debt. In the case of the larger proprietors, Government has given some relief by liquidating the principal and collecting a moderate interest from the indebted Thákurs; but with the peasantry, weighed down under the accumulation of hereditary indebtedness, such a system of relief would be practically impossible. Wages and prices have increased considerably of late years. In 1850 coolies received $2\frac{5}{8}$d. per diem; in 1873, they obtained $4\frac{1}{2}$d.; in 1850, the wages of smiths were 6d. per diem; in 1873, they had risen to 9d. or 1s. The period of daily labour has also decreased meanwhile from 10 to 8 hours. The following were the prices current of food grains in 1873: Best rice, 4 *sers* per rupee, or 28s. per cwt.; common rice, 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.; barley, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; wheat, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.

Tenure of Land.—The soil of Ajmere-Mhairwárá is held on tenures analogous to those which prevail in the adjacent Native States. The

territory throughout Rájputána may be broadly divided into two classes —*khálsá*, or Crown domain; and *zamíndárí*, or land originally held in barony by feudal chiefs, under obligation of military service, but now owned on a tenure known as *istimrárí*. *Khálsá* land, however, might be alienated by the Crown as endowment for a religious institution, or in *jágír* as a reward of service to an individual and his heirs. Throughout all Rájputána, the State in its *khálsá* territory retains the actual proprietary rights, standing in the same relation to the cultivators as the feudal chiefs stand to the tenants on their estates. In *jágír* lands, these rights are transferred to the *jágírdár*. But immemorial custom in the *khálsá* of Ajmere allowed a cultivator who effects permanent improvements, such as sinking wells or constructing embankments, thereby to acquire certain privileges in the soil so improved. Such a cultivator was protected from ejectment by prescriptive law so long as he paid the customary share of the produce. He might sell, mortgage, or give away the well or embankment, together with the hereditary privileges it entailed, which thus practically amounted to proprietary rights. Unirrigated land being of little value in Ajmere, the State gradually became restricted in its proprietorship to the waste or grazing lands; and since 1850 it has abandoned its claim to the ownership, and transformed the *khálsá* villages into *bháyáchára* communities, owning the surrounding soil in common. This change, however, is little understood by the people, who still regard the British Government in the light of a landlord. The *zamíndárí* estates are usually held on the tenure known as *istimrárí*, originally a feudal holding, under obligation of military service. The Marhattás, however, who would obviously have found it impolitic to encourage the warlike tendencies of their Rájput vassals, commuted for a fixed tribute the duty of furnishing a contingent to aid the suzerain power. The chieftains accordingly acquired the habit of regarding themselves as holders at a fixed and permanent quit-rent; and although, during the earlier portion of our rule, extra cesses were levied from time to time, in 1841 the British Government remitted all such collections for the future, and granted *sanads* to the various *istimrárdárs*, declaring their existing assessments to be fixed in perpetuity, without liability to re-settlement. A relief, however, is levied on successions, its amount being separately stipulated in each *sanad*. Another mode of tenure, known as *bhúm*, and confined to Rájputs, consists essentially in the possession of a hereditary inalienable title to the soil, free of revenue to the State. In return, the *bhúmias* bind themselves to perform certain police duties, such as guarding against dacoity or theft; and also to indemnify losses due to crimes which they ought to have prevented. This rude device for the protection of property, handed down from an earlier and a weaker Government, is already becoming obsolete; and the *bhúmias* have been

permitted in certain cases to commute their responsibility, though still remaining liable to be called out as an armed militia for the suppression of riots or rebellion. In Mhairwárá, where no settled government existed before the British occupation, and where the people found plunder more congenial than agriculture, no revenue was ordinarily paid, and accordingly no tenures sprang up. At its first land Settlement, therefore, the British Government acted as landlord, gave leases, built tanks, and collected one-third of the produce as revenue. At the Settlement of 1851, however, all cultivators were recorded as proprietors. Speaking generally, throughout Mhairwárá a non-proprietary cultivating class can hardly be found, except on the estates of the feudal chieftains. No rent law exists; rentals are collected exclusively in kind; suits for arrears rarely occur, and suits for enhancement are unknown. Custom regulates the rates, and as cultivators are still deficient in number, a competition for labour exists between the landlords rather than for land among the labourers.

Natural Calamities.—Ajmere-Mhairwárá, like the neighbouring portions of Rájputána, lies peculiarly exposed to the disasters of drought and famine. In ordinary years of scarcity, the people in the afflicted tracts emigrate to more favoured regions, returning home in time for the sowings of the succeeding year. But when both the south-western and north-eastern monsoons fail, Rájputána is exposed, in local phraseology, to the miseries of a 'treble famine,' due to the lack of grain, grass, and water. Serious scarcity occurred in Ajmere-Mhairwárá in 1819, in 1824, in 1833, and in 1848. The dearth of 1861, which produced such disastrous results in the North-Western Provinces, affected only the eastern border of Rájputána; while Marwar, Ajmere, and the whole tract dependent on the south-western monsoon, secured an abundant harvest. But in 1868-69 a treble famine of the most disastrous sort desolated the whole of Rájputána. In Ajmere the harvests for the four preceding years had been insufficient, and the District accordingly entered on the famine with its stock of grain exhausted. On every side, the surrounding Native States themselves suffered severely; and Ajmere stood isolated from other British Districts in the midst of an extensive famine tract. Transport was almost impracticable, as the failure of grass rendered the pack-cattle unable to work. Owing to the scarcity of fodder, cows were offered for sale at 2s. a head in August 1868. At the same time, wheat sold for 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.; and barley, *joár*, and grass at 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 4d. per cwt. Relief works were set on foot; emigration went on uninterruptedly; while, on the other hand, crowds of starving poor poured into the District from Marwar, accompanied by their herds, which consumed the little grass still remaining. Early in 1869, although poorhouses were established, the people were reduced to support themselves upon the bark of trees and

roots. The *kharíf* harvest of 1869 proved a partial failure, and the distress became terrible. Food could not be procured at any price. By the close of the famine, it was calculated that 105,000 persons, or 25 per cent., had perished, besides 33 per cent. of the cattle. Government had expended altogether £152,007, of which sum £23,000 were gratuitously distributed. The famine left the District thoroughly impoverished and deeply indebted, nor can its prosperity be expected to revive before the lapse of many years. It is hoped, however, that the opening of the Rájputána State Railway, which has greatly relieved Ajmere-Mhairwárá from its previous isolation, will prevent the recurrence of so severe a visitation by affording a means of access for the rich grain stores of the Doáb.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The city of Ajmere was in ancient times an *entrepôt* for the trade between Bombay and Upper India, and a factory was early established by the East India Company at this important centre. The District forms the natural mart for the interchange of Rájputána produce with European goods or Upper Indian and Bombay wares. The trade of Ajmere city was for some years on the decline, but the railway has largely revived its importance, while Beáwar (or Náyánagar) and Nusseerabad (Nasírabad) have lately made rapid progress. The chief imports consist of sugar and European cloth; the principal exports comprise cotton, for which Beáwar forms the great local mart, and poppy seeds, which are despatched to Páli in Marwar. The District has no manufactures except a few salt-pans. Till quite lately, the transit trade was entirely carried on by camels and bullocks, but these have now been largely superseded by the railway. Communications have rapidly improved of late years. The famine of 1868-69 gave a great stimulus to the construction of metalled roads, of which the District now possesses six, the principal among them connecting Ajmere city with Agra, and Nusseerabad with Deoli. Mhairwárá had hardly any roads before the famine, but a good track now runs to Todgarh, and two others lead over the passes into Masuda and Meywar. The Rájputána State Railway from Agra to Ajmere was opened on August 1, 1875, and the branch to Nusseerabad (Nasírabad) on Feb. 16, 1876. The local traffic over the whole line far exceeds any expectations that had been formed, and the effect in cheapening commodities at Ajmere has been considerable. A line from Ajmere to Ahmedabad, which will complete the connection between Agra and Bombay, is in progress. There is one printing-press at Ajmere city, from which the Rájputána *Official Gazette* issues in English, Hindi, and Urdu.

Administration.—Ajmere-Mhairwárá forms a District under a Deputy-Commissioner, whose headquarters are at Ajmere city. Mhairwárá is administered by an Assistant-Commissioner, whose headquarters are Náyánagar or Beáwar. The united District forms also a Chief Com-

missionership under the Foreign Department; the Governor-General's agent for Rájputána being *ex officio* Chief Commissioner of Ajmere-Mhairwárá with the powers of a Sessions Judge, with the direct management of the police, registration, jails, and education. The total revenue, imperial, local, and municipal, raised in the District during the year 1875-76 amounted to £77,906, and the total expenditure to £57,765. The imperial receipts were returned at £60,013, of which £39,169, or nearly two-thirds, were due to the land tax. The other principal items of receipt were stamps, excise, and fees in law courts. The total strength of the police force during the same year was 547 men of all grades, being in the proportion of one policeman to every 4·86 square miles, and every 577 of the population. The cost of maintenance amounted to £9047, or £3, 8s. od. per square mile, and 6⅞d. per head of the population. The whole number of crimes reported to have been committed in the united District during the same year was 2828, being at the rate of one crime to every 0·94 square mile of area, and every 111 of the population. The District contains but one place of confinement for criminals, which is also the central jail for the whole of Rájputána, receiving prisoners from all the Political and Criminal Courts throughout the Province. During the year 1875 it contained 955 convicts, of whom 903 were males and 52 females. The daily average number of inmates was 357. The average annual cost per head amounted to £6, 4s. 6½d., and the average earnings of each prisoner to £3, 1s. 1½d. Education still remains in a backward state, when compared with other portions of Northern India. In 1875-76 the District possessed a total number of 124 schools, with a joint roll of 4831 pupils. The United Presbyterian Mission has 6 stations in Ajmere, and maintains 88 schools, with a total of 2897 pupils. The Ajmere College, opened in 1851, was affiliated to the Calcutta University ten years later, and contained 310 students in 1875. The Mayo College, set on foot by the late Earl of Mayo on the occasion of his visit to Rájputána in 1870, will be supported partly by the interest on a sum of nearly 6 *lákhs*, contributed by the native chiefs, and partly by an allowance from Government. It is intended as a purely aristocratic College for the whole of Rájputána, where the sons of Rájput noblemen may be brought into direct contact with European ideas, under healthy influences of physical and moral training. The College has been carried on since 1875. The District contains two municipalities, Ajmere and Beáwar. In 1875-76 their joint revenue amounted to £7066, the greater part of which was derived from an octroi duty. The incidence of municipal taxation fell at the rate of 3s. 10⅞d. per head of their united population.

Medical Aspects.—Ajmere-Mhairwárá lies on the border of the arid zone of Rájputána, outside the full influence of the two monsoons, from whose spent and wasted force it derives a scanty and precarious

rainfall. The average annual amount for the fourteen years ending 1873, was 22·73 inches at Ajmere, 18·79 inches at Beáwar, and 20·10 inches at Todgarh. The maximum at any of the three stations during this period was 43·40 inches in 1862, and the minimum was 5·50 in 1868, the year of the great famine. The climate is healthy; with cold, bracing weather in December, January, and February, when hoar-frost not infrequently covers the ground in the early morning. The mean monthly temperature in the shade showed 90·5° in May, 87·1° in July, and 73·0° in December 1875. The maximum reading was 112° in May, and the minimum 62·0° in December. The District suffers from no special endemic disease, except fever in Ajmere city; but epidemics of cholera frequently occur, while dysentery, skin diseases, and pleurisy cause many deaths. Ophthalmia is common, and guinea-worm sometimes attacks hundreds of people in a single year. The mortuary statistics for the District are not considered trustworthy. The District contained seven charitable dispensaries in 1875, which afforded relief to 24,575 persons, of whom 454 were in-door patients. The lunatic asylum had 19 inmates during the same year, 11 of whom were discharged as cured.

Ajmere. — Municipality, City, and Administrative Headquarters of Ajmere-Mhairwárá District, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 27′ 10″ N., long. 74° 43′ 58″ E. Population in 1872, 26,569 souls, about one-third of whom are Muhammadans. Distant from Bombay, 677 miles north; from Agra, 228 miles west. Occupies the lower slope of the Táragarh hill, crowned by the lofty fortress of Táragarh. A stone wall, with five gateways, surrounds the city. Well-built, open streets, containing many fine houses. Founded according to tradition by the eponymous Rájá Aja, in the year 145 A.D. Underwent many dynastic changes during the Middle Ages. A full account of its history will be found under AJMERE-MHAIRWARA DISTRICT. Akbar built a fortified palace just outside the walls, where Jahángir and Sháh Jahán often resided. Sir Thomas Roe, the ambassador of James I. of England, visited the city in December 1615, and presented his credentials to Jahángir. His journals present a vivid picture of Court life at Ajmere in 1615 and 1616. In 1659 Aurangzeb defeated his brother Dárá at Ajmere. In 1791 the fort underwent a siege by the Marhattás under De Boigne, who captured the city on the 22d August. The original town stood in the valley through which the road leads to Táragarh, known as Indurkot, where a number of Musalmán families still reside. Among the points of interest in or near the city, the most noticeable is the Dargah, an object of veneration to all religions and sects. It marks the burial-place of the saint, Khwája Muezzin-ud-dín-Chishti, more briefly known as Khwája Sáhib, who came to Ajmere in the year 1235, shortly before the invasion of Shaháb-ud-dín. He succeeded in

converting many of the inhabitants, and worked several miracles, whose memory is handed down in numerous legends. His eldest lineal descendant still ranks as spiritual head of the shrine. The Dargah lies on the southern side of the city, and comprises, amongst other buildings, a partially ruined mosque, erected by Akbar, another mosque of white marble, the gift of Sháh Jahán, still in perfect repair, and the tomb of the Khwája himself, a square-domed edifice with two entrances, one of which is spanned by a silver arch. A festival called Urs Melá, of six days' duration, is held annually at the Dargah. The Arhai-dín-ka-Jhonpra, a mosque situated on the lower slope of the Táragarh hill, originally formed a Jain temple, but was converted into a place of Muhammadan worship, according to tradition, by Altamsh or Kutab-ud-dín in two and a half days. It ranks as the finest specimen of early Muhammadan architecture now extant; but its gorgeous prodigality of ornament and delicately-finished detail are referred by General Cunningham to the earlier Hindu workmen, whose handicraft has been incorporated in the Musalmán building. Government has lately undertaken to repair this magnificent relic, which had long exhibited signs of decay and insecurity. Akbar's massive, square, fortified palace, on the north side of the city, served for some years as an arsenal for the British military authorities, but now does duty as a *tahsíli* and treasury. Ajmere derives its water-supply from the Anáságar tank, by two masonry channels. The transport trade of Rájputána centres in the city, and has largely increased since the opening of the railway to Agra. Several important firms of Seths have their head offices in Ajmere, with branches throughout Rájputána and other parts of India. They act chiefly as bankers and money-lenders, transacting a large business with the Native States in advances for the payment of tribute. The city contains two institutions for higher education, the Ajmere and the Mayo Colleges, details of which are given under the heading of AJMERE-MHAIRWARA DISTRICT. It also includes a jail, dispensary, post office, and telegraph station, besides the terminus of the Rájputána State Railway. The headquarters of the Mhairwárá Battalion were transferred to Ajmere in 1871. Municipal income in 1875-76, £5112; from octroi, £4223, or 3s. 2⅛d. per head of population (26,569 souls) within municipal limits.

Ajmírgarh.—Hill in Bilászpur District, Central Provinces, 3500 feet high. Summit difficult of access; at one time fortified.

Ajnála.—A *tahsíl* of Amritsar District, Punjab; lying between 31° 37′ and 32° 3′ 15″ N. lat., and between 74° 32′ 30″ and 75° 1′ E. long. Area, 415 square miles. Pop. (1868), 190,511 souls. Occupies the north-west corner of the District, and stretches on either side of the river Ravi.

Ajnála.—Village in Amritsar District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1868), 1808 souls. Lies on the road from Amritsar

to Siálkot, 16 miles north-west of the former town. Old bridge, built under the Síkh rule, spans the Sakké stream. Founded, according to tradition, by one Bága, a Najár Ját, and hence called Najrála, of which the modern name is a corruption. *Tahsíli*, police station, *sarái*, distillery, dispensary, post office, Anglo-vernacular school.

Ajodhya.—Ancient town in Fyzabad District, Oudh, adjacent to Fyzabad, on the right or south bank of the Gogra (Ghágra) river. Lat. 26° 48′ 20″ N., long. 82° 14′ 40″ E. The interest of Ajodhya centres in its ancient history. In the present day, the old city has almost entirely disappeared, and its site is only known by heaps of ruins, buried in jungle. But in remote antiquity, Ajodhya was one of the largest and most magnificent of Indian cities. It is said to have covered an area of 12 *yojan*, equal to 96 miles, and was the capital of the kingdom of Kosala (corresponding to the modern Oudh), and the court of the great King Dasaratha, of the Solar line. The opening chapters of the *Rámáyana* recount the magnificence of the city, the glories of the monarch, and the virtues, wealth, and loyalty of his people. Dasaratha was the father of Ráma Chandra, the hero of the epic. A period of Buddhist supremacy followed the death of the last king of the Solar dynasty. Ajodhya, according to the Bráhmanical legend, declined, but on the revival of Bráhmanism was restored by King Vikramáditya (circ. 57 A.D.). He is said to have traced out the ancient city, and identified the different shrines and spots rendered sacred by association with events in the life of Ráma, the deified son of Dasaratha. The most important of these are the Rámkot, or fort and palace of the king, the Nageswar Náth shrine, sacred to Mahádeo, the Maniparbat or sacred mound, and a few temples still visited by thousands of pilgrims. After Vikramáditya, the kingdom of Kosala, with Ajodhya as its capital, was ruled successively by the Samudra Pál, Sríbastam, and Kanauj dynasties, until the period of the Muhammadan conquest. Kosala is also famous as the early home of Buddhism and of its modern representative, Jainism, and claims to be the birthplace of the founder of both these faiths. The Chinese traveller, Hiouen Thsang, in the 7th century, found twenty Buddhist temples, with 3000 monks, at Ajodhya, among a large Bráhmanical population. Many Jain temples exist, but are of modern restoration. Other more recent temples (dating from about 150 years back) mark the supposed birthplaces of five of the principal hierarchs of the faith. The Muhammadan conquest has left behind it the ruins of three mosques, erected by the Emperors Bábar and Aurangzeb, on or near the site (and out of the materials of) three celebrated Hindu shrines known as (1) the Janmasthán, marking the place where Ráma was born; (2) the Swarga-dwára *mandir*, on the spot where his body is said to have been burned; and (3) the Businessetá-ka-Thákur, famous as the scene of one of his great sacrifices. The modern town of Ajodhya

contains 1693 houses, 732 being of masonry. Population, 7518, of whom 4407 are Hindus, 2519 Muhammadans, and 592 'others.' There are 96 Hindu temples, of which 63 are Vishnuvite and 33 Siváite; 36 Musalmán mosques. Principal buildings—Darsan Sinh's or Mán Sinh's temple, erected about 25 years ago; and the mausoleum of the Bahu Begam, described as 'the finest building of the kind in Oudh.' Little local trade is carried on; but the great fair of Rámnámi held here every year is attended by about 500,000 people.

Ajodhyá.—A considerable trading village in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 35′ 10″ N., long. 87° 32′ 20″ E.

Aka Hills.—Tract of country on the north-east frontier of India, occupied by an independent tribe called Aka. It lies north of Darrang District, Assam, bounded east by the Daphla Hills, and west by independent Bhutiá tribes. The Akas call themselves Hrusso, and are divided into two clans—the Hazárí-khoas, or 'eaters of a thousand hearths;' and the Kapás-chors, or 'thieves that lurk in the cotton fields.' These are both Assamese nicknames, indicating the terror inspired in former days by their raids into the Brahmaputra valley. The Aka country is very difficult of access, the direct road from the plains leading along the precipitous channel of the Bhoroli river. Farther north lies the country of the Migís. During recent years the Akas have shown themselves peaceably disposed towards the British Government. In 1873, a small piece of land in the plains, 49 acres in extent, was granted to the Hazárí-khoa clan. In 1875-76, the boundary between the Kapás-chors and Darrang District was demarcated by the Deputy-Commissioner. This clan, a few years ago, adopted a degraded form of Hinduism, together with the worship of the god Hari; and the chief has recently sent two of his younger brothers to be educated at Tezpur.

Akalgarh.—Town in Gujránwála District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 16′ N., long. 73° 52′ 0″ E. Pop. (1868), 5038, comprising 2747 Muhammadans, 1905 Hindus, 260 Síkhs, 126 'others.' Third-class municipality; income in 1875-76, £153; incidence of municipal taxation, 7¼d. per head. First-class police station, post office, Government charitable dispensary.

Akalkot.—Feudatory State, one of the Satára Jágírs, Bombay Presidency; lying between lat. 17° 17′ 45″ and 17° 44′ N., and long. 75° 56′ and 76° 28′ 30″ E. Bounded on the north and east by the Nizám's Dominions and Kaládgi District, and on the west by the District of Sholápur. Area, 498 square miles; 107 villages. Population in 1872, 81,068, or 163 persons to the square mile. Gross revenue in 1873-74, £22,850. Akalkot forms part of the tableland of the Deccan. The country is open, undulating, and remarkably free from tracts of waste or forest land. A few streams cross the District, but they are all small, the Bori, the largest, being nearly dry during the greater part of the year. The climate is comparatively cool and agreeable, with an average rainfall of

30 inches during the six years ending with 1872. Fever, diarrhœa, and dysentery are the most prevalent complaints. Within the limits of the State there are neither mines nor forests. The chief agricultural products are Indian millet (Holcus sorghum), rice, sugar-cane, gram, wheat, and linseed. Of the total population, 85·9 per cent. are Hindus, 13·4 Muhammadans, 0·5 Jains, and 0·2 belong to other religions. A survey of this State lately (1871) completed shows that (exclusive of alienated villages) 271,259 acres are cultivable, and 24,313 uncultivable. The cultivable State lands have been assessed at an average yearly rate of 1s. 8d. per acre, yielding a total yearly income of £22,770. The chief occupation of the inhabitants is agriculture, supporting 35·14 per cent. of the population. The only other industry of any importance is the weaving of cotton cloth, turbans, and women's robes, a calling that gives employment to about six hundred families.

In the beginning of the 18th century, the Akalkot territory, which had formerly been part of the Musalmán kingdom of Ahmednagar, was subject to the supply of a contingent of horse granted by Sáhu, the ruler of Satara, to a Marhattá officer, the ancestor of the present chief. On the British annexation of Satara in 1849, the Akalkot chief became a feudatory of the British Government. At that time the contingent of horse was commuted for a yearly money payment of £1459. The family follows the rule of primogeniture, and holds a charter (*sanad*) authorizing adoption. The State does not maintain any military force. In 1866, on account of his misrule, the chief was deposed, and the State placed under the management of the British Government until the chief's death in 1870. During the minority of the heir, Sáhib Sháhájí Málojí Bhonslá, a Marhattá by caste, who, at the time of his accession, was a child of two years of age, the territory is managed by an officer under the Bombay Government, styled 'Political Superintendent, Akalkot.' The chief is a first-class Sardár of the Deccan. A portion of the funds of the State are yearly set apart for the construction of public works; a dispensary has been established at the town of Akalkot. There are 34 schools, attended by 880 boys and 129 girls.

Akalkot.—Chief town of the State of the same name, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 31′ 30″ N., long. 76° 15′ E.; 250 miles south-east of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 8470.

Akar-álí.—Old raised road or *álí* in Sibságar District, Assam Province, running from Golághát to Negheriting; length, 20 miles; annual cost of maintenance, £80.

Akbarbandar.—Trading village and produce *dépôt* in Rangpur District, Bengal. Chief trade, jute and tobacco.

Akbarnagar.—Old name of RAJMAHAL, Bengal.

Akbarpur.—*Tahsíl* of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 246 square miles, of which 130 are cultivated. Pop. (1872),

10,171 souls. Land revenue, £20,942; total revenue, £23,036; rental paid by cultivators, £23,728; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 7⅞d.

Akbarpur.—*Tahsíl* Subdivision, Fyzabad District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Fyzabad and Tánda *tahsíls;* on the east by Tánda; on the south by Sultánpur District; and on the west by Bikápur *tahsíl;* lying between 26° 14′ 45″ and 26° 35′ N. lat., and between 82° 15′ 45″ and 82° 46′ 15″ E. long. Area, 402 square miles, of which 204 are cultivated. Pop. according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes of area—Hindus, 179,624; Muhammadans, 20,571: total, 200,195, of whom 102,918 are males, and 97,277 females. Number of villages or townships, 617; average density of pop., 497 per square mile.

Akbarpur.—Chief town in *tahsíl* of same name, Fyzabad District, Oudh, on Tons river. Lat. 26° 25′ 35″ N., long. 82° 34′ 25″ E. Pop. (1869), 3100; 856 houses. A Muhammadan town, formerly of considerable importance, with old fort, mosque, and fine masonry bridge spanning the Tons, erected by the Emperor Akbar.

Akbarpur (or Katrá).—Village and *thána* in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 12′ 45″ N., long. 85° 41′ 6″ E. Pop. (1872), 2208,—namely, 1906 Hindus, and 302 Muhammadans. Contains a small *bázár* and remains of an interesting old fort, said to have been built by Rájá Chánd.

Akbarpur-Sinjhauli.—*Parganá, tahsíl,* Akbarpur, Fyzabad District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Tánda; on the east by Birhar; on the south by Surharpur; and on the west by Majhaurá *parganás.* Originally in the hands of the Bhars, by whom it was called Sojháwal after a Ráwat chief of the same name; subsequently corrupted into Sinjhauli. The fort and town of Akbarpur, built by an officer of the Delhi emperor of that name, afterwards gave its name to the *parganá,* which has been thenceforward entered in the official records as Akbarpur-Sinjhauli. A fine masonry bridge, erected during the reign of Akbar, across the river Tons, which intersects the *parganá,* is still in a state of good preservation. Area, 263 square miles, of which 129 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 123,081, and Musalmáns, 20,801; total, 143,882, residing in 364 villages. Average density of pop., 529 per square mile.

Akdia.—Petty State in Northern Káthiáwár, Bombay. Consists of one village with four independent tribute-payers. Lat. 21° 42′ N., long. 71° 8′ E. Estimated revenue in 1876, £100. British tribute, £13.

Akheri.—Ancient town in Mysore.—*See* IKKERI.

Aklaj.—Municipal town in the Málsiras Subdivision of Sholapur District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 53′ 30″ N., long. 75° 4′ E. Pop. (1872), 4889; municipal revenue in 1874-75, £77; rate of municipal taxation, 3¾d. per head.

Aknur.—Town and fort just within Kashmir State, Punjab, situated at the foot of the southern Himalayan range, and on the banks of the Chenab, which here becomes navigable. Lat. 32° 5′ N., long. 74° 47′ E. The town chiefly consists of ruins, but presents a picturesque appearance from without. It has a fine old palace and modern fort.

Akohri. — Town, Unao District, Oudh; 11 miles south-east from Purwa, and 31 from Unao. An ancient town, containing a large Kshattriya population. Pop. (1869), 4121, including 34 Musalmáns.

Akola.—A British District of Berar, under the Resident of Hyderabad, in lat. 20° 17′—21° 15′ N., and long. 76° 23′—77° 25′ E. Bounded on the north by the Sátpura Hills, on the south by the Sátmál, or Ajanta range continuation, on the east by Ellichpur District, and on the west by Buldána and Khandesh Districts. Area, 2654 square miles. Greatest length north and south, 72 miles; greatest breadth east and west, 63 miles. Population, according to latest estimates (1877), 523,913. The town of Akola, on the river Morná, is the Administrative Headquarters of the District, and of the Commissionership of West Berar.

Physical Aspects.—The District is almost a dead level. The Púrna, a non-navigable river, forms the main line of drainage, and receives seven tributaries in its westward course through the District, which it divides into two almost equal parts. Two conical-shaped hills, one in the south of the Bálápur *táluk*, the other in the Akola *táluk*, rise abruptly from the plain. The soil is for the most part a rich black alluvial mould. Forest reserves, 45 square miles, chiefly plantations of *Bábul* (Mimosa arabica) for supply of fuel and small timber. In the coverts bordering the hills, hyænas, wolves, black bears, and wild hog are found. The increase of cultivation under British administration has driven away the tiger, which is now rarely seen. Antelopes, bustards, pea-fowl, partridge, and quail are still met with. At Pátúr there is a temple cut out of the solid rock. Several temples built of dressed stone without cement are also found. The Chhatri or pavilion of black stone, supposed to have been built by Rájá Jái Sinh, the Rájput prince, who was one of Aurangzeb's best generals, may still be seen at BALAPUR. The most noteworthy of the Darghs (saints' tombs) is that of Pír Námad Aulia Ambia at Dharur, who is said to have led the forlorn hope at the storming of Narnála, when besieged by the Delhi emperor. The salt wells extend more than fifty miles in length, and about ten in breadth on both sides of the Púrna river, from the village of Pátúr on the west, to near Nanda on the east, the principal wells being close to Dahihánda. The diameter of the shafts is 3 or 4 feet, lined with basket-work; at 90 to 120 feet a thick and strong band of gritstone is met with, through which, when pierced, water rushes up 15 or 20 feet. The salt is produced by natural evaporation of the water,

which is drawn up and exposed in salt-pans; it contains deliquescent salts, which give it a bitter taste, and spoil it for exportation.

History.—Local traditions preserve the memory of independent Rájás who governed from Ellichpur, and assert that the princes preceding the Muhammadans were Jains. The tract now forming Akola District was presumably included in the territory acquired by Alá-ud-dín in 1294, in his first expedition to the Deccan. At his death the Hindus reasserted their independence, but were crushed, and their last Rájá of Deogarh was flayed alive in 1319, from which date Berar became permanently subject to Muhammadan rule. The Báhmani dynasty, with the Imad Sháhí rulers, and the Ahmednagar princes, held sway in succession until 1594-96, when the Emperor Akbar annexed Berar and formed it into an imperial Province. His son, Prince Murád Mirzá, built a palace for himself in Akola District in 1596; and the District was included in Sarkár Namála. On the death of Akbar, Málik Ambar, an Abyssinian, recovered part of Berar, and in 1612 fixed a standard rent-roll, the memory of which still survives. But his influence was short-lived; and from 1596, Akola practically remained a Province of the Mughal empire. Its revenue system, as organized by Todar Mall, was introduced about 1637-38, from which year the Fasli era runs in this District. In 1671, the Marhattá, Pratáp Ráo, Sivají's general, plundered as far east as Káranja (in Amráoti District), and exacted a pledge from the village officers to pay *chauth*. In 1717 the Marhattás obtained formal grants from the Ministers of the Emperor Farrukhsiyyar. But in 1724, Chinkhilich Khán, Viceroy of the Deccan, under the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, obtained a decisive victory over Farrukhsiyyar's party. Since this date, Berar has been reckoned a dependency of the Nizámat at Hyderabad. But throughout the 18th century, a long struggle went on between the Nizám and the Marhattás for the revenues of the Province. By the battle of ARGAUM, 32 miles north of Akola, General Wellesley broke the Marhattá power under Raghojí Bhonslá; and the District, as a section of Berar, was formally made over to the Nizám in part in 1804, and the remainder at the conclusion of the Pindárí war. The exactions of the Nizám's revenue officers led to frequent outbreaks. In 1841, Mogat Ráo planted the flag of the Marhattá Bhonslás on the walls of Jamod in the north of Akola District. More serious disturbances took place in 1849 under Appá Sáhib, and were only put down by British troops. Akola was one of the Districts assigned by the Nizám to the British for the maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent, under the treaties of 1853 and 1861.

Population, as ascertained in 1867 by Census, 460,615. The latest return, based, however, only on estimates, shows (1876-77) a population of 523,913 on an area of 2654 square miles, being 197

per square mile. Adult males, 172,969; adult females, 167,718. Male children under twelve, 97,662; female children under twelve, 85,164. Total males, 270,631; females, 253,282. Annual excess of births over deaths is stated at 13 per 1000. Hindus, 469,159; Muhammadans, 43,415; aboriginal tribes, 9303; Buddhists and Jains, 1694; Europeans and Eurasians, 109; Pársis, 48. In 1867 the number of Bráhmans was 14,482; Kshattriyas, 23,980; the rest of the Hindus are of low class, Pásis (snarers of wild animals), Mángs, and Jogis, numbering some 10,000 or 11,000, and leading a wandering life. The Kanbis (Hindu cultivators) worship and pay vows at Muhammadan shrines, whose custodians (*Mujáwars*) officiate at ceremonies forbidden by the Korán. The Musalmáns consult the Hindu Joshi, a priest astrologer, for auspicious days. The Mánbhans, a Hindu sect bound to but not rigidly observing celibacy, number about 1000 in Akola District. A new sect, acknowledging no tie but that of absolute dependence on and service to the Túlsi (Ocymum sanctum), sprang up in 1860-70. No castes are excluded, and a Bráhman belonging to it must offer obeisance to the *Mál* or necklace of Tulsi root beads, worn by an outcast Dher. The *pátwáriship* of Mauza Agar of the Akola *táluk* is held by a Muhammadan convert family, a most exceptional case in Berar. Agriculturists number 447,724; non-agriculturists, 76,189. The principal towns are Akola, population 15,920; Akot, 15,266; Khámgaon, 9234; Bálapur, 13,768; Jalgaon, 8763; Shegaon, 8120; Pátúr, 6011; Argaum (Argáon), 4500; Pinjar, above 3000. The Holi, Dasahára, and Pola are the principal festivals, the latter in honour of the plough cattle of the village.

Agriculture.—The principal *kharíf* or autumn crops of the District are cotton, great millet (*joár*), *til*, tobacco, and some indigo; and the most valuable, *rabí* or spring crops, wheat, gram, linseed, peas, and opium. Market garden crops, generally irrigated, include sugar-cane, onions, *pán*, sweet potatoes, plantains, grapes (at Jumbod only), etc. Some jute is grown near Bálapur. Such rotation of crops as experience has shown to be necessary is practised. Grass is cut and stacked at the end of the rains. The strong-rooted grass called *kund*, offers, in deep soils especially, great obstruction to ploughing; but the best black soil, if it has been properly cleared of this grass, does not require ploughing more than once in fifteen or twenty years, and is merely scarified with a steel-edged implement called *wakhar*. The farmers consider frequent ploughing exhausting. *Banni* cotton (the best and earliest variety) is gathered in November, and *jari* in December; if well cared for, each kind should yield three pickings. Horses, inferior; ponies, better. Oxen, which are ridden as well as driven, are noted for their beauty, strength, activity, and endurance. The total area professionally surveyed, showed 1,363,020 acres under cultivation, the most important crops being (1876-77), cotton (two

kinds), 541,266; *joár* (the staple food of the people), 455,895; linseed, 75,326; wheat, 54,445; *bájra*, 19,402; gram, 28,958; *til*, 19,627; opium, 434; lac, 16,819; tobacco, 2133; *urd*, 4583; hemp or flax, 1587.

Land Tenures.—When Akola was assigned to the British, the only recognised title to land was actual possession by the cultivator, with payment of revenue. Certain rights and prescriptive privileges were allowed to long-settled occupants; but, as a rule, all ancient proprietary rights had been extinguished by the *tálukdárs* and revenue farmers. The British Government has now given stability to the tenure of land by instituting leases for thirty years, under which the occupant is, subject to specified restrictions, acknowledged as a heritable proprietor. Rates of rent: For cotton land, 2s. 7d. per acre; wheat, 3s. 8d.; linseed, 3s.; *joár*, 2s. 7d.; gram, 3s. 2d.; opium, 6s. 3d. The wage of a harvest labourer, when he is not paid in kind, is 4½d. to 6d. a day.

Natural Calamities.—Owing to the scarcity of water, the District suffers greatly in years of extreme drought. In 1862, a year of famine, the loss of cattle was very great. Severe visitations of cholera are common.

Manufactures and Trade.—Coarse cotton cloth is woven in nearly every village; and at Akot and Bálapur, good cotton carpets and turbans are manufactured. Weekly markets are held in every considerable village and town, and petty traders visit the most frequented of these with foreign groceries and cheap manufactures. Three principal fairs—at Pátúr Shaikh Bábu, in February, lasting twenty days; at Sonála, in November, five days; and at Akot, in November, twelve days—attract large numbers of traders from long distances.

Chief imports, sugar, salt, hardware, piece goods, wheat, oil, and rice; principal exports, cotton, *ghí*, indigo (a little), saffron, and cattle. The railway has to a great extent supplanted the *banjáras* or pack-bullocks for long distances, but about 8000 of these animals are still employed in the internal district trade. KHAMGAON, now the largest cotton mart in Berar, is connected with the Great Indian Peninsula main line of railway, by a branch eight miles long; its trade is over £1,000,000 sterling a year. SHEGAON, distant eleven miles east on the main line, is more conveniently situated for cotton from the north of the District, and is a formidable rival to Khámgaon.

Roads and Railways.—There are 216 miles of road in the District, and 65 miles of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway pass through it, having seven stations; one of which, Jalum, forms the junction for Khámgaon. Akola has two newspapers, the *Berar Samáchár* and the *Urdu Akbar.* Branches of the Berar Government Central Book Dépôt supply the District with English, Marhatti (chiefly), Sanskrit, Persian, and Urdu works.

Administration.—The total area professionally surveyed is 1,442,598 acres, of which 1,363,020 are cultivated; 68,500 cultivable; 6789 uncultivable waste; 4289 grazing land. The assessed rate per cultivated acre is 2s. 7½d.; on cultivable acreage, 1s. 9½d. Number of villages on Government rent-roll, 1392; and of revenue subdivisions, 5. Land revenue, £177,679; total revenue (gross), £234,640. The District is administered by a Deputy-Commissioner. Sanctioned strength of police, 82 officers and 428 men. One central jail at Akola; daily average of prisoners in 1876, 419·72; cost per head, £5, 10s. 0d. Death-rate, 3·5 per cent. Crimes attended with violence have much decreased under British rule. Muhammadan convicts form more than one-fourth of the jail population, while their proportion to the Hindu District population is about one to eleven. Number of Government and aided schools, 151, with 6649 scholars. At Akola there is a College for training teachers. Marhatti and Urdu are the spoken languages of the people. Akola (population, 15,920) and Khámgaon (population, 9234) are municipalities. Receipts for 1876-77: Akola, £947; Khámgaon, £1419.

Meteorological Aspects, etc.—The hot season begins in March and lasts for about three and a half months, during which sunstrokes followed by cholera often occur. The rains commence about the middle of June, and last until the end of August. September and October are usually hot and moist. The coldest season is from November to February; frost is very rare. It is said that the great extension of cultivation since British rule has decreased the water in the wells. Temperature in the shade in May, 114° F.; in December, 45° F. Average annual rainfall at Akola, about twenty-six inches. Principal diseases: Cholera, which is endemic; fevers; and bowel complaints. In 1876, six Government dispensaries afforded relief to 25,826 patients. Death-rate, 34·8 per 1000 of the population; deaths by snakes or wild beasts in 1876-77, 32. Number of vaccine operations in the year, 15,320; the Muhammadans are less ready than Hindus to have their children vaccinated.

Akola.—Municipal town and headquarters of the District of the same name. Lat. 20° 42′ 15″ N., long. 77° 2′ E. On the Nágpur extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; 363 miles from Bombay, and 157 from Nágpur. Height above sea level, 930 feet. Population (according to Administrative Report of 1876-77), 15,920. Akola had long been the headquarters of a sub-district under the Nizám's Government, its old brick fort and stone-faced walls with bastions still testifying to its importance. It formed the scene of a battle (date uncertain) between the Nizám's troops and the Marhattás. Pindári Gh※zi Khán was defeated in 1790 below its walls by the Bhonsla's general; and General Wellesley encamped in it for a day in 1803. During the late years of the Nizám's rule, it declined, owing to the malpractices of the native

officer in charge, who robbed and did not keep off other robbers; and many of the inhabitants emigrated to Amraoti. Under the British Government, it has increased in trade and population, and is now the Headquarters of the Commissionership of West Berar. The town is bisected by the Morná; Akola Proper being on the west of the river, and Tájnapet, with the European houses and Government buildings, on the east. A cotton market was established about 1868 in Tájnapet, with presses, and the trade developed rapidly. Public buildings: Commissioner's and Deputy-Commissioner's offices; courts; jail; barracks; hospital; charitable dispensary; rest-houses for both European and native travellers; schools. Population within municipal limits (1877), 12,236; municipal taxation, £947, or 1s. 6d. per head. The site of a Christian mission.

Akoná.—Village, Bahraich District, Oudh; 22 miles east of Bahraich town, on the road from that place to Balrámpur. Lat. 27° 33′ 11″ N., long. 81° 59′ 38″ E. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 1492; Musalmáns, 360: total, 1852. The estate of which this is the chief place, was confiscated in 1858 for the rebellion of its owner, and transferred partly to the Mahárájá of Balrámpur, and partly to the Mahárájá of Kapurthala. Two Hindu temples; three mosques; police station; school.

Akot.—Town and headquarters of *táluk* of same name, Akola District, Berar; about 30 miles north of Akola town. Lat. 21° 5′ 45″ N., long. 77° 6′ E.; pop. (1867), 14,006. Interspersed with garden land and mango groves, every house having its own well. Several good examples of building in carved stone. Akot is one of the chief cotton marts of Berar, attended by both European and native merchants. The cotton is despatched to SHEGAON, on the G. I. P. (Nágpur Extension) Railway. Good carpet manufactures, the best sorts, however, being only made to order. Public buildings—*Tahsíl* office; telegraph station, open during the cotton season; branch of Bank of Bombay; schools; travellers' bungalow.

Akouk-toung.—A hill forming the east extremity of a spur of the Arakan Yoma Mountains, Henzada District, British Burma. Lat. 18° 29′ 45″ N., long. 95° 10′ 45″ E. Overhangs the river Irrawaddy, which here enters on the delta, and spreads out into creeks and bifurcations. The scarped cliff (300 feet high) is honeycombed with excavated caves, containing images of Buddha. The scene of two or three engagements during the second Burmese war.

Akyab.—A District in Arakan Division, British Burma, lying between 20° and 22° 29′ N. lat., and between 92° 14′ and 94° E. long.; area, 5337 square miles; pop. (1872), 276,671 souls. Bounded on the north by Chittagong District, on the south by numerous straits and inlets, on the east by the Yoma Mountains, and on the west by the

Bay of Bengal. The administrative headquarters are at Akyab town, on the Kúladan river.

Physical Aspects.—Akyab consists of the level tract lying between the sea and the Yoma Mountains, and of the broken country formed by their western spurs and valleys. From these hills flow the three principal rivers of the District,—viz. the Mayú, Kúladan (Koladyne), and Lemro, —at first mountain torrents, but spreading out on the plains into a network of channels, and forming a delta as they merge into the sea by interlacing tidal creeks. The Mayú rises in the mountains forming the northern boundary of the District, and, after following a south-south-east course, reaches the sea a few miles north-west of Akyab. The Kúladan, the most important river of Akyab, rises in the main range in the neighbourhood of the Blue Mountain, and falls into the sea at Akyab town. Its mouth forms a spacious harbour, but the entrance is rendered difficult by a bar. In the rainy season it is navigable by boats of 400 tons burden for 70 miles above Akyab, and by boats of 40 tons for 50 miles higher. The Lemro rises far in the north, and falls into the sea in Hunter's Bay. The Arakan Yoma range forms the eastern boundary of Akyab, and its spurs cover the whole portion of the District east of the Lemro. A pass leading across this range connects the District with Upper Burma. In the west, between the Naaf and the Mayú rivers, and terminating near the mouth of the latter, is the steep Mayú range, the southern part of which runs parallel with, and not far from, the coast. This range is traversed by several passes, which are only practicable for foot passengers. Through one of these, the Alaikhyoung, the Burmese force retreated before General Morrison, during the first Burmese war (1824-25). The forests form a most important feature of Akyab District, and contain a valuable supply of timber of many kinds. The low ground near the sea is covered with forests of mangrove; farther inland the principal trees are the *tsit* (Albizzia procera), the *pyengma* (Lagerstræmia Reginæ), and the *khaboung* (Strychnos nux vomica), *ka-gnyeng* (Dipterocarpus alata). But the most valuable timber is found on the lower ranges. On these the tree most frequently met with is the *pyengkado* (Xylia dolabriformis), of which a large quantity is exported for railway sleepers. The wood is used for bridges, boats, house-posts, etc., and is much esteemed. Teak plantations have recently been made in the upper parts of the tract drained by the Kúladan and Lemro rivers. Numerous other valuable timber trees are found, among which may be mentioned the *thit-pouk* (Dalbergia sp.) and *thenggan* (Hopea odorata), used for boat-building. Bamboo abounds everywhere.

History.—Akyab was the metropolitan District of the native kingdom of Arakan, and the history of the Province centres in it. The following sketch will therefore recapitulate the leading facts, which have been

collected from the Burmese annals, for the whole of Arakan. The earliest traditions, obscure and for the most part incredible, endeavour to magnify the connection between Arakan and India, the cradle of the Buddhist faith. Long before the birth of Gautama Buddha, the Burmese chroniclers state that an Arakanese kingdom, with its capital at Rámawadi, near the modern Sandoway, paid tribute to the King of Báranathi (*Benares*). Ages later, Tsekkyawadi, who was in a future life to be born as Gautama Buddha, reigned in Benares, and allotted to his fourth son, Kanmyeng, 'all the countries inhabited by the Burman, Shan, and Malay races, from Manipur to the borders of China.' Kanmyeng peopled his dominions with a multitude of non-Aryan tribes from the north-east, and settled the progenitors of the present Arakanese strip of land between the Yoma Mountains and the sea, which they still inhabit. The only value of these traditions is that they point to a connection with India, and to Aryan influences, prior to the introduction of Buddhism. But it should be remembered that they were compiled in a post-Buddhistic age; and their historical accuracy may be judged of from the circumstance, that the number of years during which Kanmyeng's dynasty reigned is represented in the Palm-Leaf Records by a unit followed by 140 cyphers.

The Muhammadans make their appearance in Arakan about 800 A.D.; several of their ships having been wrecked on Ramree island, not far south of Akyab; and their crews settled in the adjoining villages. The Arakanese capital still continued at Rámawadi, near the modern Sandoway. In the 9th century the King of Arakan made an expedition into Bengal, and set up a pillar at Chittagong, which, according to the Burmese tradition, takes its name (Tsit-ta-goung) from a remark of the conqueror, that 'to make war was improper.' Towards the end of the 10th century the King of Prome, in the Irrawaddy valley, pressed hard upon Southern Arakan; and the capital was removed northwards to Mrohoung ('Old Arakan'), in Akyab District, where it continued (with intervals) until the headquarters of the Province were finally changed to Akyab town by the British, in 1826. The next five centuries are filled with annals of invasions from the south and east, by the Burmese, Shans, Talaings, Pyus, and other tribes from beyond the Yoma ranges, which separate Arakan from the Irrawaddy valley, and with internal revolutions or dynastic struggles among the Arakanese themselves. A Burmese inscription at Buddh-Gayá, in Behar, describes a king of Arakan in the 12th century as 'Lord of a hundred thousand Peyus,' or inhabitants of the Pagan kingdom in the Irrawaddy valley, to which kingdom Arakan seems then to have been subject. Between 1133 and 1153 A.D. reigned Gan-laya, 'to whom the kings of Bengal, Pegu, Pagan, and Siam, did homage,' and who built the Temple of Mahati, in Akyab District, a few miles south of the capital, 'Old

Arakan.' This temple, second only to that of Mahámúni, was occupied as a fort by the Burmese troops in 1825, and unfortunately destroyed by our troops in driving them out. The oldest Arakanese coins, bearing the emblems of royalty, belong to the 12th century. In the 13th century the Arakanese began to push northwards into south-eastern Bengal, and twice received tribute or presents (circ. 1237 and 1294 A.D.) from the Bengali kings at SONARGAON, in Dacca District. A dynastic struggle in Arakan led to the King of Ava being called in as an ally in 1404, and the Province remained subject to him till 1430, when its independence was established, and Mrohoung ('Old Arakan') was again fixed on as the capital. During the remainder of the 15th century Arakan enjoyed comparative rest; but the 16th century brought fresh attacks by the Burmese from the interior, and by the Portuguese from the seaboard. In 1531 the capital, 'Old Arakan,' was fortified against the latter adventurers by a stone wall 18 feet high; and in 1571 it was further strengthened by lakes excavated around it, traversed only by narrow causeways. Between 1560 and 1570 the Arakanese conquered Chittagong, and the King's son was appointed governor. This connection with the northward led the Arakanese King to realize the power of the encroaching Mughal Empire. He accordingly encouraged the Portuguese corsairs and outlaws from Goa to make shore settlements on the coast of Arakan, provided them with wives and lands, and gave over Chittagong to them as a pirate harbour. These river bandits formed a good defence against the Mughal galleys; but they also proved troublesome to their Arakanese patrons. About 1605 the nest of sea-robbers at Chittagong threw off their nominal allegiance to the Arakan King; and in 1609 the latter resumed their grants of land, and drove them out of that harbour. They took refuge in the island of SANDWIP, at the mouth of the Ganges, where they first put every Muhammadan to death, and whence they next despatched an unsuccessful expedition against Arakan. Their leader, Sebastian Gonzales, a low Portuguese, had been successively a common soldier, a dealer in salt, and a pirate. One of the rival kings of Arakan, being driven by a dynastic revolution to seek refuge at Sandwíp, was first received with ostentatious hospitality, then forced to give his sister in marriage to the Portuguese ruffian, and died suddenly, not without suspicion of poison. Gonzales joined with the new Arakan King against the Mughal, then destroyed the Arakan fleet, and entered into treaty as an independent prince with the Portuguese Viceroy at Goa, to invade Arakan. The admiral and the pirate chief were separately defeated; the former fell in action, the latter was deserted by his followers and perished miserably. The King of Arakan took possession of Sandwíp, whence he annually plundered the Bengal Delta, carrying off the people as slaves to Arakan. In 1661 Sháh

Shujá, the Mughal Viceroy of Bengal, and son of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, being defeated by his brother, Aurangzeb, sought refuge in Arakan, and was received with great pomp. But the Arakan King soon afterwards demanded his guest's daughter in marriage; and, on being haughtily refused, he seized and drowned the Muhammadan prince, and killed all his sons. The princess whom he had sought in marriage stabbed herself rather than submit to the embraces of an infidel barbarian; two of her sisters took poison, and the third, forced to wed the Arakan King, either died of grief or was brutally murdered when about to become a mother. Not one of Sháh Shujá's family survived; and his father, the aged Emperor Sháh Jahán, bitterly exclaimed, 'Could not the cursed infidel have left one son alive to avenge the wrongs of his grandfather!'

This marks the climax of Arakanese power and insolence. Aurangzeb, although glad to be rid of a rival brother, determined to show that no member of the imperial family might be thus treated with impunity. Shaistá Khán, his Viceroy in Bengal (1680–1690), first joined with the Portuguese to inflict a crushing punishment on the Arakan King; then seized Chittagong, and treated his Portuguese allies as pirates and traitors. During the next century dynastic struggles wasted Arakan, and exposed it to every sort of foreign and domestic calamity. In 1784 the Burmese gave the final blow to the ancient kingdom of Arakan. The Burmese armies broke into the country in three separate bodies, each under command of a royal prince, and annexed the whole Province. The Arakanese fled in great numbers from the barbarities of the conquerors into British territory, and settled in Chittagong, and on the estuary and islands of the Ganges. Others revolted, but their risings were cruelly suppressed; and the survivors again found shelter within the British frontier. The Burmese monarch, having in vain demanded the surrender of the refugees, attacked the East India Company's elephant-hunters, sent retaliatory expeditions into our Districts, insolently seized the British island of Sháhpurí, between Akyab and Bengal, and drove out our detachment in charge of it. After much forbearance and remonstrance, Lord Amherst declared war against the Burmese on the 24th Feb. 1824. The following account of our operations in Akyab District is condensed from Capt. Spearman's narrative:—'A force under Gen. Morrison moved on Arakan, and another under Sir Archibald Campbell operated by way of the valley of the Irrawaddy. On the 2d February 1825 the first detachment of British troops crossed the Naaf from Chittagong; and, after a tedious but unopposed march, arrived in front of Arakan Town on the 28th of the same month, supported by a flotilla under Commodore Hayes, which, not without resistance on the part of the Burmese, had proceeded up the Kúladan and through the creeks. "Old Arakan" was found to be strongly

fortified, the Burmese commander having added to the ancient entrenchments, and erected a line of stockades along the hills. The single pass through the hills to the town was at the northern extremity of the line of defence, and this was protected by several guns and four thousand muskets; the total garrison was 9000 men. The ground in front was clear and open, and the only cover was a belt of jungle which ran along the base of the hills, whilst beyond this again the ground was fully exposed to the enemy's fire. On the morning of the 29th March the storming party, under Brigadier-General M'Bean, advanced to attack the pass. It consisted of the light company of the 54th Regiment, four companies of the 2d Regiment L.I., the light companies of the 10th and 16th M.N.I., and the rifle company of the Magh Levy, and was supported by six companies of the 16th Regiment M.N.I. Under the well-directed and steady fire of the Burmese, and the avalanche of stones which they poured down upon the heads of the troops, the British were repulsed; and at last, when Captain French of the 16th Regiment M.N.I. had been killed, and all the remaining officers wounded, the storming party retreated. The plan of attack was then changed, and it was determined to attempt to turn the right flank of the Burmese whilst their attention was occupied by an attack on their front. On the 30th March a battery was erected to play upon the works commanding the pass, and on the 31st it opened fire. At about eight in the evening a force under Brigadier Richards left the camp; it consisted of six companies of the 44th Regiment, three of the 26th, and three of the 49th Native Infantry, thirty seamen under Lieutenant Armstrong of the *Research*, and thirty dismounted troopers of Gardener's Horse. The hill was nearly five hundred feet high, and the ascent steep and winding. All remained quiet till shortly after eleven, when a shot from the hill showed that the enemy had discovered the approach of Brigadier Richards' party. This single shot was followed by a short but sharp fire, when the Burmese turned, and the hill was in the possession of the British. The next day a six-pounder was dragged up the hill, and fire was opened on the heights commanding the pass, whilst at the same time Brigadier Richards moved against it from the position which he had taken the night before, and Brigadier M'Bean along his original line of advance; the Burmese, after a feeble defence, abandoned the works and the town. The capture of Arakan town ended the war as far as the Arakan Province was concerned; the Burmese troops at once abandoned Ramrí and Sandoway, and retreated across the mountains into Pegu; and the steady advance of Sir A. Campbell up the valley of the Irrawaddy, driving the Burmese forces before him, prevented any attempt on their part to disturb our possession. This advance ended at Yandaboo, where a treaty was signed on the 24th February 1826, by which Arakan and Tenasserim became British territory.'

On the withdrawal of the main body of the British army from Burma, one regiment was left in Akyab, and a local Arakan battalion was raised. Next year (1827), and again in 1836, unsuccessful efforts were made to tamper with the local irregulars, or to stir up the people. With these momentary exceptions, the peace of the Province has remained absolutely undisturbed since its annexation in 1826, and all classes have heartily accepted the rest and security guaranteed by British rule.

Population.—On its annexation in 1826, Arakan was found to be almost depopulated. In the first years of British rule, inhabitants flocked in from the adjoining territories of the King of Burma. In 1831, the population of Akyab District, then inclusive of the Hill Tracts, had risen to 95,098; in 1852, to 201,677. In 1862, Arakan, Pegu, and Tenasserim were erected into a separate administration as British Burma; and large accessions of inhabitants have since been received, both from native territory and our own Bengal seaboard. In 1872, the population of Akyab District, inclusive of the Hill Tracts, was close on 300,000. Exclusive of the Hill Tracts, Akyab District had a population of 276,671, classified thus:—Muhammadans, 32,387 males, 25,876 females—total, 58,263; Hindus, 2457 males, 198 females—total, 2655; indigenous population, Buddhist, etc., other than Muhammadans, 113,114 males, 102,305 females—total, 215,419; Europeans and Americans, 150; Eurasians, 184. There is a small community of 264 Chinese. The Arakanese are of Burmese origin, but separated from the parent stock by the Yoma Mountains, and have a dialect and customs of their own. Their kingdom was conquered by the Burmese during the last century, but they have remained distinct from their conquerors, who now number only 4632 souls in Akyab District. Their type of face is as much Aryan as Mongolian, and in character and habits they partially resemble the Indian races. Females are secluded, and early marriages of girls are now frequent. Many of the Muhammadans included in the Census were men who had come from Chittagong to the District for the working season. The resident Muhammadans are chiefly the descendants of slaves of the Burmese and Arakanese monarchs. They differ from the Arakanese only in their religious observances; they use the Burmese alphabet and speech, but among themselves preserve, colloquially, the language of their ancestors in Bengal. The Hindus have been in the country for many generations. Among them, the Manipurí Bráhmans were invited by the Burmese as astrologers; a few Doms, a very low and despised caste, were brought from Bengal to serve as pagoda slaves. In Burma the strange custom prevails of employing outcasts as servitors in the Buddhist temples. The Doms, now released from their hereditary slavery, have become cultivators, but have risen no higher in social rank. The Muhammadan immigrants intermarry

freely with the women of the country; while the Hindus, from caste prejudices, rarely do so. The Hill Tribes (38,577) are fully described in the article on the ARAKAN HILL TRACTS. The Khyoungtha are of the same race as the lowland Arakanese, but inhabit the banks of mountain streams. The number of persons employed as hired labourers was (1872) 97,295, the largest number in any District of Burma; in agriculture and cattle-dealing, 44,830; and in mechanical arts, manufactures, etc., 10,111. The agriculturists form 16·20 per cent. of the whole population. The only towns are AKYAB on the Kúladan (Koladyne) river, pop. 19,230; and 'Old Arakan' or MROHOUNG ('old town'), the ancient fortress and capital of the kingdom of Arakan, pop. 3000. Besides these two towns, the District contains only one town with 1000 inhabitants, 70 villages with 500 to 1000, 840 with 200 to 500, and 890 with fewer than 200—making in all 1803 towns and villages.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple crop, and is grown in the extensive fertile plains stretching from the foot of the northern hills to the sea-coast. It is exported from the port of Akyab, which is very easy of access by the numerous creeks around it and its spacious harbour. Acreage under cultivation (1875), excluding *toungyas*—Rice, 272,902 acres; oil-seeds, 13 acres; sugar, 30 acres; tea, 110 acres; cocoa-nuts, 283 acres; betel-nuts, 824 acres; dhania, 7625 acres; plantains, 1355 acres; *pán*, 463 acres; vegetables, 2259 acres; hemp, 74 acres; mixed fruit trees, 9238 acres; mixed products, 8918 acres. Cattle disease and the cyclone of 1867 threw 30,000 acres out of cultivation in 1868. The high prices during the Bengal scarcity of 1874 gave it a new impetus. The holding of each cultivator averages 8½ acres. The *toungya*, or nomadic system of husbandry, still lingers in Akyab District. It resembles the *júm* tillage of the Hill Tribes in Chittagong and Bengal. The *toungya* cultivator burns down the jungle, raises a rapid series of exhausting crops from the open spot, and then deserts it for a fresh clearing. Some tribes cultivate the same patch for two or three years, after which the hamlet migrates *en masse*. Another process is thus described by the Chief Commissioner of British Burma:—A hill-slope is selected in the cold weather; its jungle cut down in April, and burnt in May, the ashes being spread over the ground; and several crops are sown together at the beginning of the rains (June). The harvest continues from August to October. The Indian corn ripens at the end of July; a crop of melons and vegetables follows in August; the rice harvest is reaped in September; and a cotton crop concludes the exhausting series in October. 'The same spot,' adds the Chief Commissioner, 'can only be cultivated on this system once in ten years.' It is profitable as long as a superabundance of fresh land is available, and is now being abandoned as wasteful before the increasing pressure of

the population. The *toungya* cultivator pays no rent, but a poll tax of two shillings a year *per family* in Arakan, and *per male* in Tennaserim and other parts of British Burma. The more economical tillage by the plough is now extirpating this primitive form of husbandry in Akyab District. In 1855 there were 5355 *toungya* cultivators or 'cutters'; in 1867 the number had fallen to 3428; in 1875, to 2983. Agricultural stock has increased rapidly, notwithstanding the plague of 1867. In 1875 there were—Buffaloes, 121,073; cows, bulls, and bullocks, 167,431; ponies, 271; sheep and goats, 8748; ploughs, 55,353; boats, 14,370; carts, 4712. The chief means of communication in the country are the tidal creeks, which account for the large number of boats returned. The Chittagong men are the chief carriers of grain from the interior of the District to Akyab. Wages are high; unskilled labourers are reported (1876) to earn about Rs. 5 (10s.) a month, and skilled labourers Rs. 14 (£1, 8s.).

Manufactures, etc.—A little salt is manufactured near the Naaf river by a mixed process of solar evaporation and boiling; but the quantity diminishes each year, owing to the cheapness of imported Liverpool salt. About 700 persons are employed in making earthen pots, in Akyab, Mengbra, and Rathai-doung. The trade of the District almost entirely centres in Akyab town. Before its conquest by the British, large boats from Mrohoung ('Old Arakan'), up the river, visited the ports of Bengal for British manufactures of muslins, woollens, cutlery, piece-goods, glass, and crockery. A small trade was also carried on with the other Burmese ports on the east. When the British Government removed the restrictions on trade imposed by the Burmese, AKYAB quickly rose into an important seat of maritime commerce. There are no railroads in Akyab; communication is carried on chiefly by water. Total mileage of roads within the District, 30; of water communication, 1500. One newspaper is published in the District, the *Arakan News*, at Akyab.

Revenue, etc.—The revenue has more than kept pace with the increase of population. In 1828 the whole revenue of the three Districts of Arakan was estimated at £22,000 per annum. In 1831 the Akyab District alone yielded £24,019; in 1840, £37,970. In 1837 the old native taxes on forest produce, huts, boats, houses, sugar-presses, handi-craftsmen, etc., had been abolished, making a remission of £9735. In 1875 the gross revenue of the District from land, capitation tax, excise, etc., but exclusive of municipal and local funds, had risen to £208,369. In 1875 the land tax amounted to £59,465. The *toungyas*, or nomadic cultivators, yielded £331. The capitation tax, paid by all males between 18 and 60 years of age, was, in 1875, assessed on 70,040 souls; and yielded £28,359, at the rate of about Rs. 4 (8s.) per head of the assessed population. The excise revenue amounted to £15,773.

Customs have increased from £18,159 in 1855-56 to £37,785 in 1865-66, and £70,062 in 1875-76. The cost of District administration in 1875 was £32,145.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, a Magistrate for the island and town of Akyab, eight extra-Assistant Commissioners, an *Akhwonwon*, a revenue officer, a Superintendent of Police, and subordinate officers. Akyab is divided into 160 circles, containing a total of 960 villages (*goungs*). Each circle is placed under an indigenous officer, *Kywon-aop*, whose duties are to collect the revenue, to preserve order, and to assist the police in the apprehension of criminals, to compile statistics, and to settle disputes concerning land, if required to do so. Each circle comprises from 3 or 4 to 15 or 20 villages. The *Kywon-aop* is assisted by the *Rwa-goung*, or village head, elected by the votes of the villagers, and paid by 4 per cent. on his collections. A village of 30 houses is entitled to a stipendiary *Rwa-goung*, but a smaller one pays its taxes to a neighbouring *goung*. If willing to pay the salary, the villagers can elect a *goung* of their own. Under the *Rwa-goung* is the *Rwatsare*, or village scribe, who is paid by 2 per cent. on his collections. His duties are to prepare the *sarang*, or village register. The police force of the District consisted, in 1875, of 452 men, costing £9379. Number of prisoners in Akyab Jail, 330 in 1875—employed in stone-breaking, coir-pounding, jute-spinning, road-making, carpentry, and smiths' work. Timber-sawing was also introduced in that year. The total cost of the Jail in 1875 was £1677, of which one-third was defrayed by the profits arising from the convict-labour. In 1875 the total number of patients treated in the Hospital and Dispensary was 2367. The Government School, established in 1846, was made a High School in 1875; number of pupils, 224. The town of Akyab was formed into a Municipality in 1874.

Climate, etc.—The climate of Arakan is malarious. Average rainfall for the three years 1873-74-75, 155·5 inches.

Akyab.—Municipal seaport, headquarters of Arakan Division and of Akyab District, British Burma; at the mouth of the Kúladan river. Lat. 20° 6′ 45″ N., long. 92° 56′ 30″ E. Originally a Magh fishing village, Akyab dates its prosperity from the time when it was chosen as the chief station of the Arakan Province, at the close of the first Burmese war (1826). The troops and civil establishments were removed here from Mrohoung ('Old Arakan'), the last capital of the Arakanese kingdom, owing to the unhealthiness of that town; but the military were afterwards withdrawn, and the cantonment abandoned. Under British rule Akyab rapidly grew into the seat of an extensive rice trade, being accessible by boats from the fertile plains in the interior, and possessing a good harbour, protected from the south-western monsoon by Savage

Island, with a lighthouse. The town is 15 feet above the level of the sea at half-tide, with places below the sea level at high water, but it has been laid out with broad raised roads, forming causeways, with deep ditches on either side. The chief obstacle to the advancement of the city was the want of labourers; the roads, ditches, tanks, etc., are almost entirely the work of convicts. An influx of inhabitants from the Chittagong coast and Mrohoung had, before 1836, developed the Magh fishing village into a seaport. In 1868 the inhabitants numbered 15,536; in 1872, 19,230, classified thus:—

	Males.	Females.
Hindus	1,884	27
Muhammadans	3,516	1,502
Buddhists	5,892	5,627
Christians	216	109
Others	387	70
Total	11,895	7,335

The chief public buildings are the Court House, Jail, Custom House, Hospital, markets, two churches, and a High School, established in 1846, with 224 pupils in 1875. Akyab has five steam rice-husking mills. The gross municipal revenue (from port dues, market rents, sale of town lands, etc.) in 1876-77 was £9066. The following figures give an idea of the rapid growth of trade at Akyab:—In 1826, when we obtained the Arakan Province, Akyab was a fishing village; in 1830-31, 140 'square-rigged vessels' visited the new port, with cargoes valued at £7378; in 1833, such vessels had increased to 178, and the value of their cargoes to £9381; in 1875, the vessels numbered 585, with a tonnage of 194,469 tons, carrying a total of imports and exports valued at £631,324. The trade for 1876-77 amounted to £1,383,346—viz. exports, £716,213; imports, £667,133. The exports are rice and timber; imports, machinery, coals, vegetable oils, canes, tobacco, cotton piece-goods, woollen and silk goods and twist, specie. 'Akyab' is supposed to be a corruption of 'Akhyat-daw,' the name of a pagoda in the neighbourhood, probably once a landmark for ships. In the Burmese language it is called Tsit-twe, because the British Army encamped here in 1825.

Alábakhshpur.—One of the business quarters of PATNA CITY, Bengal, with large trade in oil-seeds. Lat. 25° 36′ N., long. 85° 15′ E.

Alágar.—Range of low hills, Madura District, Madras; about 12 miles in length, average height 1000 feet above the sea. Sandstone predominates in their composition, but a great variety of geological formations are found at their base. On the south-east face, at the foot of the hill, stands the Kallar-Alágar Kovil, the ancient temple of the Kallans or Kallars, situated 15 miles north-east of Madura. Lat. of Alágar Hill, 10° 6′ N., long. 78° 17′ 15″ E.

Alahyar-jo-Tando (*Tando Alahyar*).—*Táluk* in Hyderabad District,

Sind, lying between 25° 8′ and 25° 50′ N. lat., and between 68° 37′ and 69° 2′ E. long. Pop. 59,746; area, 705 square miles. Revenue (1873–74), £10,243; being £9802 imperial, and £441 local.

Alahyar-jo-Tando (*Tando Alahyar*).—A municipality, and chief town of *táluk* of same name (*q.v.*). Lat. 25° 27′ N., long. 68° 45′ E. Founded about 1790 by a son of the first sovereign of Tálpur dynasty. Pop. 3913; Hindus, 2333, mainly Bráhmans, Lohános, and Punjabis; Muhammadans, 1447, chiefly Memons and Patolis. Trade in sugar, ivory, silk, cloths, cotton, etc.,—yearly amount, £11,600; besides transit trade of £16,100. Municipal revenue in 1873–74 was £682; disbursements, £632; the taxation per head being 3s. 5d. Under the Tálpur dynasty, the town attained considerable commercial importance, but has declined in modern times, especially since the Kotri-Kurrachee line, opened in 1861, diverted the trade of northern Sind. Extensive cultivation of cotton; raw silk and ivory largely imported; silk weaving and ivory work being the chief local industries. A fort, subordinate judge's court, post office.

Aláipur.—Trading village in Jessor District, Bengal, at the junction of the Bhairab and Athárábanká rivers. Lat. 22° 49′ N., long. 89° 41′ E. Noted for the manufacture, on a large scale, of excellent pottery.

Alaknanda.—River in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; one of the main upper waters of the Ganges. It rises in the snowy ranges of the Himálayas, and runs through the central valley which forms the upper part of the Garhwál District. The river is numbered among the sacred streams of India; and each of the points where it meets a considerable confluent is regarded as holy, and forms a station in the pilgrimage which devout Hindus make to Himáchal. The Alaknanda is itself formed by the junction of the Dhauli and Saraswati, and receives in its course the Nandákini, the Pindar, and the Mandákini. At Deoprayág it is joined by the BHAGIRATHI, and the united streams are henceforward known as the GANGES. Though the Alaknanda is the more important in volume and position, the Bhágirathí is popularly considered the chief source of the holy river. The character of the Alaknanda is that of a mountain stream, and the only town upon its banks is Srinagar in Garhwál. Floods not unfrequently occur, one of which, before the British occupation, swept away the greater part of the town. Gold was formerly found in the sands of this river, but the search is so little remunerative that it has been discontinued.

Alambarái.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 12° 9′ N., long. 77° 49′ E. On right bank of the Cauvery (Káveri), 65 miles east of Seringapatam. An important place in the 17th century. Garrisoned for a short time in 1768 by British troops, but relinquished on the advance of Haidar Alí's army.

Alamdángá.—Trading village on the Pangásí river, Nadiyá District, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway; 93 miles from Calcutta. Lat. 23° 45′ 30″ N., long. 88° 59′ 30″ E.

Alamgír Hill.—One of the peaks of the Assiá range, in Orissa. Lat. 20° 37′ N., long. 86° 16′ E. On the summit of a precipice of this hill, 2500 feet above the neighbouring country, stands a mosque, built (1719 A.D.) by Shujá-ud-dín, the Orissa Deputy of the Nawáb Murshid Kulí Khán. The shrine is supported by an endowment of land granted by Shujá-ud-dín.

Alamgírnagar.—An ancient fort, which once commanded the mouth of the Meghná river; was stormed and taken from the Arakanese by the Mughals under Husáin Beg, 1664-65 A.D.

Alamnagar.—Once the principal village of the Chandel chiefs in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 34′ N., long. 86° 56′ E. Contains many remains of tanks and earthenwork ramparts of forts. Distance from Kishenganj, 7 miles.

Alamnagar.—*Parganá* in *tahsíl* Shahabad, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, on the east by Piháni, on the south by North Sara, and on the west by Shahabad *parganá*. This part of the country appears to have been held originally by the Thatheras, until, at some uncertain period in the later days of Hindu dominion, a band of Gaur Kshattriyas crossed the Ganges from Kanauj and drove them out. Shortly before the fall of Kanauj, the Nikumbhs obtained a footing in the *parganá*, and occupied the country side by side with the Gaurs, until the latter, in the reign of Akbar, grew rebellious, and were expelled by Nawáb Sadar Jahán, the illustrious founder of the line of Piháni Sayyids. The fortunes of the Nikumbhs fell before the rising power of the Sayyids. Village after village was wrested from them, until at length the last of their possessions passed into the hands of the Sayyids, who named the *parganá* Alamnagar, after the then reigning Emperor Alamgír I. (Aurangzeb). The Nikumbhs did not recover their position until about ninety years ago, when the Nawáb Asif-ud-daulá resumed the revenue-free domain of the Piháni and Muhamdi Sayyids, and bestowed it upon the depressed Nikumbhs and Gaurs, who had thus an opportunity of again engaging for a portion of their lost possessions. Area of the *parganá*, 59 square miles, of which only nineteen in the middle of the tract are cultivated. On the east and west are almost unbroken belts of *dhák* and thorn jungle, teeming with game. Government land revenue demand, £2451, at the rate of 1s. 3⅝d. per acre of area. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 13,713; Muhammadans, 1508: total, 15,221,—residing in 43 villages. Average density of population, 258 per square mile.

Alampur.—Petty State of Gohelwad, in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Con-

sists of one village. Lat. 21° 57′ N., long. 71° 46′ E. Estimated revenue (1876), £400. Pays tribute, £123, to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Alandi.—Municipal town, and a place of Hindu pilgrimage, in Poona District, Bombay. Lat. 18° 27′ N., long. 74° 6′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 1624; municipal revenue (1874-75), £364; rate of taxation, 4s. 5¾d. per head.

Alápur.—A town in Budaun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 54′ 45″ N., long. 79° 17′ E.; pop. (1872), 5347, comprising 3303 Hindus and 2044 Muhammadans. Ten miles south-east of Budaun.

Alatúr.—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 52′ N., long. 76° 6′ 30″ E.; pop. 3385; houses, 683. Sub-magistrate's and subordinate civil courts; post office; travellers' bungalow. Weekly market.

Aláwalpur. — Municipality in Jullundur District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 26′ N., long. 75° 42′ E.; pop. (1868), 5073, comprising 2882 Muhammadans, 1875 Hindus, and 316 Síkhs. Third-class municipality. Revenue, chiefly from octroi, in 1875-76, £107; incidence of taxation, 5¼d. per head of population within municipal limits—4873 in 1875.

Aláwarkháwá.—Village in Dinájpur District, Bengal. Of some celebrity as the scene of a Hindu religious festival (*Ráspurnimá*) held in October–November of each year, lasting eight days, and frequented by about 40,000 persons. Considerable trade is carried on at this fair.

Alay-Khyoung.—Revenue circle, Kyouk-hpyoo District, British Burma. Area, 25 square miles. Salt manufacture. Land revenue (1874-75), £113; capitation tax (1875), £201. Pop. 1600.

Alay-Kywon (I.).—Revenue circle, Bassein District, British Burma. Area, 65 square miles. The centre of the mass of islands lying in the river Bassein, between the Bassein and Thek-kay-thoung mouths. Flat and jungly, with low sand-hillocks, and covered with a network of streams, its chief means of inter-communication. Revenue (1876), £815. Pop. 1893, chiefly engaged in salt-making and fishing.

Alay-Kywon (II.).—Revenue circle, Kyouk-hpyoo District, British Burma; on north coast of Hunter's Bay. Area, 27 square miles. Land revenue (1875), £466; capitation tax, £138. Pop. 1084 souls.

Aldemau.—*Parganá* in Sultanpur District, Oudh. This *parganá* appears to have been originally in the hands of the Bhars; and local tradition asserts that a prominent Bhar chieftain, named Alde, built a fort and city on the high left bank of the Gumti, the ruins of which still exist, and which gave its name to the *parganá*. The only traces of Bhar occupation now visible consist of numerous old forts and ruined towns. Several settlements of Hindus were made during the Bhar period. As the Muhammadan power in Oudh became gradually con-

solidated, the Bhar supremacy languished, and ultimately the aboriginal race entirely lost their footing. The principal Hindu tribes who have settled here are the Sakarwárs, Raghubansís, Ujainiás, Bais, Pándes, Kurmís, and Rájkumárs. The Rájkumárs are the latest arrivals, but they soon became the most powerful, and the rights of other clans rapidly declined until this *parganá* (among others) may now be considered as the Rájkumárs' *zamíndárí*. The great Rájkumár estates in Aldemau are Derá, Meopur, Nánámau, and Paras-patti. Their chiefs were at deadly feud with each other down to the time of the annexation of Oudh, and much blood has been shed from their jealousies. The *parganá* contains an area of 349 square miles, or 223,373 acres, of which 112,480 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £23,288, being at the rate of 3s. 1½d. per acre of arable land. Population (1869), Hindus, 175,309; Muhammadans, 11,999; total, 187,308,—residing in 562 villages. Average density of the population, 537 per square mile. Several classes of professional thieves have their home in this *parganá*.

Alguada.—Dangerous reef in the Bay of Bengal, off the coast of Pegu, British Burma. Bearing from Diamond Island, 3¼ leagues south-south-west. Lat. 15° 40′ 15″ N., long. 94° 16′ 45″ E. The rocks extend 1¼ mile north and south, level with the surface of the sea, and have outlying reefs at some distance. This dangerous spot is known to the Burmese as *Nagarit Kyouk*, but to the rest of the world by the name given to it by the Portuguese mariners, Alguada. The main reef has a granite lighthouse 144 feet high, with first-class catadioptric light, revolving once in a minute, visible twenty miles. A work of great labour, commenced in 1861, and completed in 1865 under the superintendence of Captain (now Colonel) A. Fraser, C.B.

Aliabad.—Village, Bara Banki District, Oudh; about 30 miles east of Bara Banki town, on the road from Daryabad to Rudauli. Lat. 26° 51′ N., long. 81° 41′ E.; pop. (1869), Muhammadans, 933, and Hindus, 801—total, 1734. Formerly celebrated for its looms, and a considerable seat of the cloth trade; now declined owing to competition of English goods. Inhabitants principally weavers.

Alibág.—Chief town of Colába District, and headquarters of the Subdivision of Alibág, Bombay; 19 miles south of Bombay. Lat. 18° 38′ 55″ N., long. 72° 54′ 50″ E. On entering the harbour the buildings of the town are hid from view by a belt of cocoa-nut trees. The only object of mark is the Colába fort,—on a small rocky island, about one-eighth of a mile from the shore,—once a stronghold of the Marhattá sea-captain, Angriá. Pop. (1872), 5473; municipal revenue, £534; rate of taxation, 1s. 11⅝d. per head. The town has a sub-judge's court and a post office. Average annual value of trade at the port of Alibág for five years ending 1873-74:—Exports, £21,237; imports, £25,709.

Ali Bandar.—Small town on the Guni river, in Hyderabad District, Sind. Lat. 24° 22′ N., long. 69° 11′ E. Remarkable as the site of a dam, 'the only work of public utility ever made by the Tálpur dynasty,' which, however, by causing the deposit of silt above the town, cut off its water communication with Hyderabad. The channel below the town, once a main estuary of the Indus, dried up from the same reason, and the District of Saira (formerly remarkable for fertility) became a part of the Rann, or Great Salt Waste of Cutch (Kachchh).

Aliganj.—*Tahsíl* of Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Lies between the Ganges and the Káli Nadi, intersected by the Burh Ganga and Fatehgarh branch of the Lower Ganges Canal. Area, 531 square miles, of which 331 are cultivated. Pop. (1872), 215,000 souls; land revenue, £21,948; total revenue, £24,143; rental paid by cultivators, £41,174; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 3½d.

Aliganj.—Municipality in Etah District, North-Western Provinces; 32 miles north-west of Fatehgarh. Lat. 27° 29′ 20″ N., long. 79° 12′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872), 7912, comprising 5227 Hindus and 2685 Muhammadans; area, 148 acres. Rather a large agricultural village than a town. Police station, post office, large clean *sarái*. Chief trade—grain, indigo-seed, and cotton. Contains two unpretending mosques and a large mud fort, founded in 1747 by Yákub Khán, a Muhammadan convert, whose family are still the principal landowners. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £380; from taxes, £320; incidence of municipal taxation, 9⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Aliganj.—Village, Kheri District, Oudh. Lat. 28° 9′ N., long. 80° 40′ E.; pop. (1869), 1133. Bi-weekly market. Ruins of old mud fort.

Aliganj Sewán.—Municipality in Sáran District, Bengal. Head-quarters of the Sewán Subdivision. Lat. 26° 13′ 23″ N., long. 84° 23′ 43″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,099—namely, Hindus, 6897; Muhammadans, 4192; Christians, 10. The place is noted for the manufacture of very superior pottery (red and black glazed, as well as unglazed and porous), brass vessels, and chintzes. Boats can come up the river Dáhá, on which the town is situated, during the rains. Distance from Chhaprá, 40 miles; from Dinapur, 54. Municipal income, £260, 14s.; rate of municipal taxation, 5½d. per head of the population within municipal limits.

Aligarh.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 28′ 30″ and 28° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 77° 31′ 15″ and 78° 41′ 15″ E. long. Area, 1964 square miles; pop. (1872), 1,073,333. Aligarh is the southernmost District of the Meerut (Mirath) Division, and is bounded on the north by the river Ganges and the Bulandshahr District, on the

east by Etah, on the south by the Muttra and Agra Districts, and on the west by the river Jumna (Jamuná) and by the Muttra District. The administrative headquarters are at the civil station of Aligarh, adjoining the town of Koil (Koel).

Physical Aspect.—Aligarh forms a portion of the great alluvial plain lying between the Ganges and the Jumna, and known accordingly as the Doáb. Its surface is one broad unbroken level, having a general elevation of about 600 feet above the sea, with a slight slope toward the south-east. On either side it dips down abruptly into the hollow valleys of the two great rivers, which flow at a depth of about 60 feet below the central plateau. The watershed between them is composed of a low sandy ridge, along whose summit the course of the Ganges Canal has been carried. That magnificent work passes almost through the centre of the District from north to south, and distributes its waters by minor channels to the thirsty plain on either hand. Near the town of Akrabad it divides into two terminal branches, which severally run to Cawnpore and to Etáwah. Under the influence of this great fertilizing agent the plain of Aligarh presents, in the cool season, an almost uninterrupted sea of green and smiling cultivation, interspersed with numerous flourishing villages. The jungle, which covered a large portion of the District at the commencement of the British occupation, is rapidly disappearing; and, with the spread of tillage, the country is now being denuded of trees. On the higher grounds, which sever the small streams from one another, extensive patches of barren land occur, known by the name of *usar.* They are caused by the efflorescence of a noxious salt, called by the natives *reh*, and no plant or weed will grow upon the soil which it covers. It forms a white crust on the ground, and the spots on which it has gathered stand out upon the landscape glistening white in the sun, like snow on a bright winter's day in more northern climates. Unfortunately the spread of irrigation seems to have contributed to its increase, as the water, which percolates the earth, brings this deleterious saline substance to the surface. The District is intersected by several minor streams, which fall into the Ganges or the Jumna. The two main rivers are bordered by strips of lowland, largely used for grazing; and the Ganges shifts its channel from time to time, thereby exposing fresh alluvial tracts, whose deep deposits of decaying vegetable matter render them singularly fertile. To a general view, the plain of Aligarh displays one of the most fruitful and prosperous tracts of the Upper Doáb. The Káli Nadi is the only other stream of any importance.

History.—The few facts in the early annals of the District which can now be recovered, centre around the ancient city of Koil, of which the fort and station of Aligarh form a suburb. A popular legend

informs us that Koil owes its origin to one Kosharab, a Kshattriya of the Lunar race, who called the city after his own name; and that its present designation was conferred upon it by Balarám, who slew here the great demon Kol, and subdued the neighbouring regions of the Doáb. Another tradition assigns a totally different origin to the name. The District was held by the Dor Rájputs before the first Muhammadan invasion, and continued in the hands of the Rájá of Baran until the close of the 12th century. In 1194 A.D. Kutab-ud-dín marched from Delhi to Koil, on which occasion, as the Muhammadan historian informs us, 'those who were wise and acute were converted to Islám, but those who stood by their ancient faith were slain with the sword.' The city was thenceforward administered by Musalmán governors, but the native Rájás retained much of their original power. The District suffered during the invasion of Tímúr in the 14th century, and participated in the general misfortunes which marked the transitional period of the 15th. After the capture of Delhi by the Mughals, Bábar appointed his follower, Kachak Alí, governor of Koil (1526); and in the reign of Akbar the town and District were organized on the general scheme by which that great Emperor endeavoured to consolidate and unify his wide dominions. Many mosques and other monuments still remain, attesting the power and piety of Musalmán rulers during the palmy days of the Mughal dynasty. The period was marked, here as elsewhere, by strenuous and successful proselytizing efforts on the part of the dominant religion. But after the death of Aurangzeb the District fell a prey to the contending hordes who ravaged the fertile stretches of the Doáb. The Marhattás were the first in the field, and they were closely followed by the Játs. About the year 1757, Suráj Mall, a Ját leader, took possession of Koil, the central position of which, on the roads from Muttra and Agra to Delhi and Rohilkhand, made it a post of great military importance. The Játs in turn were shortly afterwards ousted by the Afgháns (1759), and for the next twenty years the District became a battle-field for the two contending races. The various conquests and reconquests which it underwent had no permanent effects until the occupation by Sindhia took place in 1784. The District remained in the hands of the Marhattás until 1803, with the exception of a few months, during which a Rohilla garrison was placed in the fort of Aligarh by Ghulám Kádir Khán. ALIGARH became a fortress of great importance under its Marhattá master; and was the depôt where Sindhia drilled and organized his battalions in the European fashion, with the aid of De Boigne. When, in 1802, the triple alliance between Holkár, Sindhia, and the Rájá of Nágpur was directed against the British, the Nizám, and the Peshwá, Aligarh was under the command of Sindhia's famous partisan leader Perron, while the British frontier had

already advanced to within 15 miles of Koil. Perron undertook the management of the campaign; but he was feebly seconded by the Marhattá chieftains, who waited, in the ordinary Indian fashion, until circumstances should decide which of the two parties it would prove most to their interest that they should espouse. In August 1803 a British force, under Lord Lake, advanced upon Aligarh, and was met by Perron at the frontier. The enemy did not wait after the first round of grape from the British artillery, and Perron fled precipitately from the field. Shortly after he surrendered himself to Lord Lake, leaving the fort of Aligarh still in the possession of the Marhattá troops, under the command of another European leader. On the 4th of September the British moved forward to the assault; but they found the fortifications planned with the experience and skill of French engineers, and desperately defended with true Marhattá obstinacy. It was only after a most intrepid attack, and an equally vigorous resistance, that the fortress, considered impregnable by the natives, was carried by the British assault; and with it fell the whole of the Upper Doáb to the very foot of the Siwáliks. The organization of the conquered territory into British Districts was undertaken at once. After a short period, during which the *parganás* now composing the District of Aligarh were distributed between Fatehgarh and Etáwah, the nucleus of the present District was separated, in 1804. Scarcely had it been formed when the war with Holkár broke out; and his emissaries stirred up the discontented revenue-farmers, who had made fortunes by unscrupulous oppression under the late Marhattá rule, to rise in rebellion against the new Government. This insurrection was promptly suppressed (1805). A second revolt, however, occurred in the succeeding year; and its ringleaders were only driven out after a severe assault upon their fortress of Kamoná. Other disturbances with the revenue-farmers arose in 1816, and it became necessary to dismantle their forts. The peace of the District was not again interrupted until the outbreak of the Mutiny. News of the Meerut revolt reached Koil on the 12th of May 1857, and was here followed by the mutiny of the native troops. The Europeans escaped with their lives, but the usual plunderings and burnings took place. Until the 2d of July the factory of Mandrák was gallantly held by a small body of volunteers in the face of an overwhelming rabble, but it was then abandoned, and the District fell into the hands of the rebels. A native committee of safety was formed to preserve the city of Koil from plunder, but the Musalmán mob ousted them, and one Nasím-ullah took upon himself the task of government. His excesses alienated the Hindu population, and made them more ready to side with the British on their return. The old Ját and Rájput feuds broke out meanwhile with their accustomed fury; and, indeed, the people indulged

in far worse excesses towards one another than towards the Europeans. On the 24th August a small British force moved upon Koil, when the rebels were easily defeated, and abandoned the town. Various other bodies of insurgents afterwards passed through on several occasions, but the District remained substantially in our possession; and by the end of 1857 the rebels had been completely expelled from the Doáb. With that episode the history of Aligarh fortunately closes.

Population.—In 1847 the population of Aligarh District was returned at 739,356, or 455 to the square mile. In 1853 the numbers had risen to 1,134,565, or 527 to the square mile. In 1865 the total population was given as only 926,588, showing an average of 498 souls to the square mile. The difference probably arose from erroneous estimates in the previous Census of 1853. In 1872 the returns rose again to 1,073,333, showing an increase of 146,745 over the total in 1865. The population in 1872 was distributed into 1750 villages, and 211,446 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 547; villages per square mile, 0·9; houses per square mile, 107; persons per village, 631—per house, 5. According to sex (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—577,263 males, and 495,845 females; proportion of males, 53·8 per cent. The preponderance of males is ascribed in part to the former practice of female infanticide, of which the Rájputs are still suspected; 85 villages were on the 'proclaimed list' in 1875 under the Infanticide Act. According to age (exclusive of non-Asiatics), under 15 years—males 235,352, females 193,109; total, 428,461, or 39·92 per cent. of the total population: above 15 years—males 341,911, females 302,736; total, 644,647, or 60·08 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, the District is still mainly Hindu, in spite of its subjection to Musalmán rulers, and their efforts towards its conversion. The Census of 1872 returned 955,121 Hindus and 117,911 Muhammadans. The percentage of Hindus is accordingly 89·0, and of Musalmáns 11·0; or, more roughly, one follower of Islám to every nine of the ancient religion. Of the four great classes into which the Hindus are divided, the Bráhmans numbered as many as 148,249 souls. They are chiefly landowners, and they hold 244 villages. The Rájputs amounted to 88,414, amongst whom the Jáduns and Chauháns are the most numerous. Their various tribes possess 544 villages. The Banias, or trading classes, are returned as 53,544 souls, and possess 210 villages. They are a wealthy body, chiefly absentees, who follow their trades as money-lenders and brokers in the larger towns. The mass of the population consists of those lower tribes classed together in the Census returns as 'other castes,' and reckoned at 664,914 souls. The Chamárs are the most numerous amongst them, amounting to 178,126 persons, or 16·5 per cent. of the

whole population; but they are generally poor, almost serfs of the proprietor, and tied by debt to the soil, with which they were transferred by custom. The Játs rank next in number, with 89,292 souls, and are far the first in social and political importance, as they hold 452 villages, which they cultivate with great industry. They have a hereditary feud with the Rájputs, and the two tribes will not inhabit the same villages. Garaiyás, or shepherds, number 32,883, and the Lodhás, Kolís, and Ahírs are also numerous. There were 62 native Christians in the District in 1872. Nine towns had populations exceeding 5000 souls—namely, Bijaigarh, 5652; Mursán, 5998; Tappal, 6023; Jaláli, 7480; Harduaganj, 6970; Sikandra Ráo, 12,642; Atrauli, 15,941; Háthras, 23,589; and Koil (with Aligarh), 58,539. These figures show an urban population amounting to 142,834 souls, leaving a rural body of 930,499. The northern half of the District abounds with the ruins of old forts. The language of the peasantry is Hindi, tinged in the south with the Braj dialect, but the better classes speak the Urdu of Delhi.

Agriculture.—Almost all the cultivable land in Aligarh is under tillage, only 12 per cent. of the available area, or 121,168 acres, being returned as waste, while 88 per cent., or 897,172 acres, is reported as being under cultivation. The District has in many places two, and in some three, harvests a year. The principal products are wheat (182,045 acres), barley (93,463 acres), *joár* (159,106 acres), and *bájra* (70,405 acres). The cultivation of cotton has largely increased of late years, and the returns show 119,715 acres employed for that purpose, while indigo, another rising staple, is grown on 29,013 acres. Of the total cultivated area, 433,516 acres, or 48·3 per cent., are under *kharíf*, or rain crops, and 450,946 acres, or 50·3 per cent., are under *rabí*, or cold-weather crops. The average out-turn of cotton is 2 *maunds*, or 1 cwt. 1 qr. 24 lbs., per acre; value on the field, £2, 4s.: while wheat produces about 17 *maunds* 20 *sers*, or 12 cwts. 3 qrs. 6 lbs., per acre; value on the field, £2, 16s. Irrigation is widely practised, as many as 648,817 acres, or 72·3 per cent. of the cultivated area, being artificially supplied with water in 1875, while only 248,357 acres, or 27·7 per cent., were dependent upon the precarious rainfall. Canals afforded water to 114,406 acres, and 524,406 acres were irrigated from wells, the residue of 10,005 acres being supplied from tanks. The main line of the Ganges Canal has a length of 48·62 miles within the District, and from it 260 miles of greater distributaries, 49 miles of lesser distributaries, and 487 miles of small channels draw their supplies. The people are fairly well-off. Besides the ordinary tenures by *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, and *bháyáchára*, there is another known as *tálukdárí*, by which the minor proprietors are responsible for their share of the revenue to a superior holder, called a *tálukdár*, the latter being in his turn responsible to Government for the whole

revenue of his subordinates, on which he receives a fixed percentage. This tenure has grown up through some confusion at the early settlements between the actual possession of land and the responsibility of the Marhattá revenue-farmers for the taxes of the country farmed by them. Most of the District is cultivated by tenants-at-will; only 29 per cent. of the area with rights of occupancy. Rents are chiefly paid in cash, and vary much with the means of communication and irrigation. Good irrigated lands in the best situations let at £1, 2s. 7d. an acre, but the same class of soil without artificial water supply rents at only 10s. 6d. an acre. Outlying dry lands are rated at from 3s. 3d. to 6s. an acre. Wages ruled as follows in 1875:—Blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, 7½d. per diem; labourers, 3¼d. to 4½d.; coolies, 3d.; women, 2¼d.; boys, 1¾d. Agricultural labourers obtained about 3d. and 1 lb of bread. Food-stuffs have risen steadily in price of late years. In 1870, wheat was 18½ *sers* the rupee, or 6s. 0¾d. per cwt.; barley, 28½ *sers* the rupee, or 3s. 11½d. per cwt.; and *joár*, 26¾ *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 2¼d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District of Aligarh is comparatively free from the danger of famine, owing to the prevalence of irrigation, more especially through the instrumentality of the great Ganges Canal. Famines often occurred before the opening of that important work; the most severe one in modern times was due to the drought of 1837. The District shared the unfortunate season of 1868-69 with neighbouring tracts, and the result was dearth and scarcity; but no actual famine occurred, and large quantities of grain were exported to less favoured regions. The inestimable value of the canal was thoroughly tested on that occasion, as Aligarh, which formerly used itself to suffer from want of food, was enabled not only to supply its own needs, but also to relieve the pressing necessities of the Punjab and the Native States to the south. Prices rose very high during the scarcity, but the market was ruled by the demand for increased exports rather than by any danger of local distress.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal articles of export from Aligarh are grain, cotton, and indigo. About 212,603 *maunds*, or 156,198 cwts., of cotton are estimated as the average annual amount which is left for exportation, after all the needs of home consumption have been supplied. The indigo trade is also flourishing and important, the District being studded with factories, which numbered 171 in 1873, and produced 3625 *maunds*, or 2663 cwts., of the marketable dye. There has been an extraordinary increase in the cultivation of indigo by natives during the past fifteen years. Oil-seeds and saltpetre form other important items in the export trade. The imports consist of sugar, rice, Manchester goods, tobacco, and manufactured articles generally. Háthras is the chief centre of trade, but Koil has also an extensive

commerce. The means of communication of Aligarh are excellent, and new routes are in progress or under consideration. The East Indian Railway crosses the District from north to south, with stations at Somna, Aligarh (Koil), Páli, and Háthras. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Line diverges from the East Indian at Aligarh, and has stations at Rámpur (for Harduaganj) and Raipur (for Atrauli). The Ganges Canal is also largely employed for through traffic. There are 229 miles of first-class roads in the District, most of which are metalled and bridged; and in addition to these, the chief villages, marts, and police stations are connected by a network of cross-country roads, 90 miles being second class, and 182 third. The District contains a remarkable native association, the Aligarh Institute and Scientific Society, founded in 1864 by Sayyid Ahmad Khán, C.S.I. Its main object is the translation into the vernacular language of modern scientific and historical works. It possesses a library of 2000 volumes, and a reading-room for English and native papers. A journal is published in connection with the society, known as the *Aligarh Institute Gazette;* printed in English and Urdu. Two other newspapers were printed at Aligarh in 1874, the *Tahzíb-ul-Akhlak* (published at Benares), and the *Mangal Samáchár.*

Administration.—In 1860 the revenue from all sources amounted to £197,837, of which £178,299, or 90·12 per cent. of the total, was contributed by the land tax. At the same date the expenditure amounted to £52,146, or little more than one-fourth of the revenue. In 1870 the total receipts had risen to £223,709, of which £196,655, or 87·90 per cent. of the whole sum, was contributed by the land tax. At the same time the expenditure had decreased to £43,472, or less than one-fifth of the revenue. The principal items of receipt in 1872, exclusive of land tax, were judicial charges, income tax, and stamps. The last land settlement was made in 1871-73, and will remain in force until 1901. The District was administered in 1874 by a Magistrate-Collector and his Assistant, five Deputy Collectors, six *tahsíldárs*, and six Honorary Magistrates. There were four *munsifs*, besides the Judge of Aligarh. Twenty-five magisterial and 13 civil courts were held in the District. The regular police numbered 1057 men in 1873, maintained at a cost of £11,421 per annum; there was thus one policeman to every 1·75 square mile, and to every 1015 inhabitants. They were supplemented by 2000 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), or one to every 485 inhabitants; who were maintained at a cost of £7200. The total machinery for the protection of persons and property consisted, therefore, of 3057 men of all ranks, giving an average of one man to every 0·64 square mile and every 351 inhabitants; the total sum expended on their support amounted to £18,621, or about 4⅛d. per head of the population. In the same year the number of persons convicted for all offences, great or small, within the District,

was returned as 1143; being at the rate of one to every 938 inhabitants. Aligarh is infested by a clan of gipsy-like vagrants, known as Habúras, whose sole profession is thieving, and who give much trouble to the police authorities. A single jail suffices for the criminal population of the District; the average number of prisoners in which was 562 in 1850, 481 in 1860, and 470 in 1870; or ·067, ·056, and ·051 per cent. of the inhabitants respectively. In 1860, the number of admissions was 1660; in 1870, the figure had fallen to 1260. Education is rapidly spreading, both in the higher and lower departments. The number of schools in 1860 was 427, and the children under instruction were returned as 4964; while the cost of maintenance amounted to £2314. In 1871 the number of schools had decreased to 370, but their greater efficiency and popularity were shown by the list of pupils, which had risen to 7941; while the sum expended on education had increased to £5426. The District is subdivided into six *tahsíls* and fourteen *parganás*, with an aggregate in 1874 of 2045 estates, owned by 27,175 registered proprietors or coparceners; the average land revenue from each estate amounted to £100, 2s. 2¾d., and from each proprietor, to £7, 10s. 9d. There are five municipal towns, Harduaganj, Koil, Sikandra Ráo, Atrauli, and Háthras (*qq.v.*). In 1875-76 their united revenue amounted to £10,580, and their joint expenditure to £9014. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 5⅝d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Aligarh is that of the Doáb Plain generally. The year is divided into—the rainy season, from June till October; the cool season, from October till April; and the hot season, from April till June. The mean temperature in 1853 was as follows:—January 60°, February 78°, March 88·5°, April 89°, May 98°, June 99·5°, July 87°, August 92·5°, September 94°, October 83·5°, November 77°, December 70°. The average rainfall for the ten years 1862-72 was 25·9 inches; the maximum during that period being 31 inches in 1863-64; and the minimum, 14·3 inches in 1866-67. The only endemic disease prevailing in the District is a malarious fever; but cholera and typhoid fever occur in an epidemic form, especially during years of scarcity. In 1873 the number of deaths reported was 24,848, or 23·13 per thousand inhabitants; and of these 14,063 were due to fever, and 4678 to small-pox. In 1872 there were dispensaries at Koil, Háthras, Sikandra Ráo, and Khair, which afforded relief to 12,915 out-patients and 742 in-patients. Cattle-disease is common, and assumes a virulent form when the rains first set in; the animals gorge themselves with rank grass after the long scarcity of the dry months. Foot-and-mouth disease is also prevalent.

Aligarh. — *Tahsíl* of Farrukhabad District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 186 square miles, of which 110 are cultivated; pop.

(1872), 86,343; land revenue, £12,810; total revenue, £14,732. Rental paid by cultivators, £22,264; incidence of revenue per acre, 2s. $1\frac{3}{4}$d.

Aligarh.—Municipal town and Administrative Headquarters of Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 55′ 41″ N., long. 78° 6′ 45″ E.; area, 400 acres. Population in 1872, with the town of Koil, 58,539, comprising 39,012 Hindus, 19,489 Muhammadans, and 38 Christians. The fort and civil station of Aligarh adjoin the large native city of Koil, which may be conveniently treated under the same heading. Koil is a handsome and well-situated town, the centre of which is occupied by the high site of an old Dor fortress, now crowned by Sábit Khán's mosque, a conspicuous object from the surrounding plain. The history of this place has been given under ALIGARH DISTRICT. The fort, 740 feet above the sea level, founded at a much later date than the city, was captured by Lord Lake in 1803. It was held by Perron, the partisan general of Sindhia, but on the first approach of Lord Lake's forces he fled to Háthras and thence to Muttra. The fort was stormed by the British on the 4th of September, and carried after a desperate resistance; with its fall, the whole Upper Doáb passed into our hands. The place was naturally strong, owing to its position in the midst of large swamps and deep morasses, and it had been fortified with the greatest skill by its French engineers. The native troops at Aligarh joined the Mutiny of 1857, and the town was successively plundered by the Mewatis of the neighbouring villages, by the passing rebel soldiery, by Nasím-ullah during his eleven days' rule, and by the British troops. The East Indian Railway has a station here, and a junction with the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has recently been constructed. The post-office workshops for the manufacture of carts, bags, and other postal apparatus, give employment to 300 or 400 workmen. The Aligarh Institute has a library of 2000 volumes and a public reading-room, furnished with the leading English and vernacular journals. Details regarding this institution, and respecting the Aligarh press, have been given under ALIGARH DISTRICT. Public buildings—the courts, the Anglo-vernacular schools, the District jail, and the church, also a dispensary and a Government telegraph office. The principal trade is in cotton, for which there are screws near the railway station. Manufactures unimportant, except a little pottery. The affairs of the town are managed by a municipality of fifteen members, five of whom are official and ten elected by the taxpayers. Total municipal revenue in 1875–76, £5593; from taxes, £4556; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. $7\frac{1}{2}$d. per head of population (55,846) within municipal limits. Distance from Calcutta, 803 miles north-west; from Delhi, 84 miles south-east.

Aligarh.—The site of a small fort on the west bank of the Húglí river, near Garden Reach, 5 miles below Calcutta, which was taken by Lord Clive at the re-capture of Calcutta, on the 30th December 1756. Only the site now remains.

Aligáum.—Town in Ahmednagar District, Bombay, on the river Bhima. Lat. 18° 35′ N., long. 74° 23′ E.; 32 miles east from Poona. A Government stud was established here in 1827, but not proving successful, it was abandoned in 1842.

Alipur.—The principal Subdivision of the District of the TWENTY-FOUR PARGANAS, Bengal; lying between 22° 19′ 45″ and 22° 38′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 8′ 30″ and 88° 42′ E. long.; area, 402 square miles; pop. (1872), 630,736, including 408,008 Hindus, 213,904 Muhammadans, 143 Buddhists, and 7957 Christians. Number of villages, 793; of houses, 112,144; average number of persons per square mile, 1569; of villages per square mile, 1·97; and of houses per square mile, 278; average number of persons per village, 795; and per house, 5·6. Alipur has been the Headquarters Subdivision of the District since 1759; it includes the Suburbs of Calcutta, and is divided into seven *thánás*, or police circles. In 1870-71 it contained twelve magisterial courts, and the total police force consisted of 1127 men. The total separate cost of the Subdivisional administration was returned in that year at £18,248.

Alipur.—The civil Headquarters of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 31′ 50″ N., long. 88° 24′ E. It forms a southern suburb of Calcutta, and contains Belvedere House, the residence of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and a number of handsome mansions. It lies within the limits of the South Suburban Municipality, and is a cantonment for native troops. The strength of the military force stationed at Alipur in 1873 was as follows:—Small detachment of Bengal Cavalry, one Native Infantry Regiment and wing of another, making a total of 8 English and 21 native officers, and 925 non-commissioned officers and men. A well-supplied market at Kidderpur, less than a mile off. A Zoological Garden has recently been opened in this suburb. There is a large jail at Alipur, mainly filled with long-term convicts from various Districts of Bengal; the total number of prisoners on the 31st December 1876 was 2066, of whom only one was a European; the daily average number of prisoners during that year was 2154. On the Calcutta *maidán* opposite Alipur Bridge, stood two trees under which duels were fought. It was here that the famous meeting, in 1780, between Hastings and Francis took place.

Alipur.—Civil station and headquarters of the BAXA SUBDIVISION of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal.

Alipur.—The southernmost *tahsíl* of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Lat. (centre) 29° 16′ N., long. 70° 55′ E. Forms the end of the

wedge of the Sind-Saugor (Ságar) Doáb, between the Chenáb and the Indus. Area, 773 square miles; pop. (1868), 89,651.

Alipur.—Municipal village in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab, and Headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 29° 23′ N., long. 70° 57′ E.; pop. (1875), 2525. Police office, dispensary, and *sarái*. Small export trade in molasses, indigo, and snuff. Municipal revenue, chiefly from octroi, in 1875-76, £314; incidence of municipal taxation, 2s. 5⅞d. per head of population within municipal limits. Fevers prevalent during rainy months.

Alipur.—Finest agricultural village in Wardha District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 32′ 45″ N., long. 78° 44′ E.; pop. (1870), 3303. Founded by Nawáb Salábat Khán of Ellichpur; but passed to the family of the Secretary to the late Marhattá Government. Famous for its well-irrigation, gardens, mango groves, and brisk weekly fair. Has also a colony of weavers.

Alipura.—Petty Native State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 7′ 15″ and 25° 17′ 30″ N. lat., and between 79° 21′ and 79° 30′ 15″ E. long. Bounded north and east by Hamírpur District, south by Garauli, and west by Jhánsi. Estimated area, 85 square miles; pop. 9000; revenue about £5000. The lands comprising this State were granted by Hindupat, Rájá of PANNA, to Achal Sinh, and the grant was confirmed to his son, Partáb Sinh, by Alí Bahádur. On the British occupation, Partáb Sinh obtained a *sanad* confirming him in his possession; and his great-grandson, Hindupat, succeeded in 1840. The *jágírdár* belongs to the Purihar caste of Rájputs; he maintains a force of 180 infantry with 2 guns. The town of Alipura lies 100 miles south-east of Gwalior, and 24 miles north-west of Chhatarpur.

Ali Rájpur.—A petty Principality in the south-west corner of the Central India Agency, bordering upon the Rewá Kánta States. Area, 800 square miles; pop. (1877), 29,000, almost entirely Bhíls. The country is mountainous, and covered with jungle. The chief is a Sesodiya Rájput. The present (1877) ruler, Ráná Rúp Dáoj, is thirty years old, and is assisted in the administration of the State by a minister appointed by the British Government. The Ráná is entitled to a salute of 9 guns. Revenue in 1877, £1000. Ali Rájpur was formerly tributary to Dhar, but the latter State ceded its rights to the English in 1821, and the Ráná now pays tribute direct to the English Government.

Aliwál.—Village in Ludhiána District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 57′ N., long. 75° 37′ E. Famous as the scene of the great battle of the first Síkh war. Lies on the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). At the end of June 1846 it was held by Ranjúr Sinh, who had crossed the river in force and threatened Ludhiána. On the 28th, Sir Harry Smith, with a view to clearing the left or British bank, attacked him, and after a desperate

struggle thrice pierced the Síkh troops with his cavalry, and pushed them into the river, where large numbers perished, leaving 67 guns to the victors. The immediate consequence of the victory of Aliwál was the evacuation of the Síkh forts on the British side of the Sutlej, and the submission of the whole territory east of that river to the British Government. Aliwál is 9 miles west of Ludhiána.

Aliyár.—River, Coimbatore District, Madras.

Allahabad.—A Division, under a Commissioner, in the North-Western Provinces, lying between 24° 47′ and 26° 57′ 45″ N. lat., and between 79° 19′ 30″ and 83° 7′ 45″ E. long., and including the six Districts of CAWNPORE, FATEHPUR, BANDA, ALLAHABAD, HAMIRPUR, and JAUNPUR, all of which see separately. Area of Allahabad Division, 13,422 square miles; pop. (1872), 5,468,955, including 4,952,791 Hindus, 511,935 Muhammadans, and 1390 Christians or 'others.'

Allahabad.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 24° 47′ and 25° 47′ 15″ N. lat., and between 81° 11′ 30″ and 82° 23′ 30″ E. long. Area, 2747 square miles; population in 1872, 1,396,241. Allahabad is a District in the Division of the same name, and is bounded on the north by Partápgarh, on the west and south-west by Fatehpur and Bánda, on the south by the native State of Rewá, and on the east by Mirzapur and Jaunpur. The administrative Headquarters are at ALLAHABAD, the capital of the North-Western Provinces.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Allahabad is situated at the confluence of the two rivers, Jumna (Jamuná) and Ganges, and its limits embrace the territory lying between those great streams, as well as beyond their outer banks. The central portion consists of the triangular wedge or tongue of land enclosed by the converging channels; while its apex, close to their point of junction, is occupied by the city of Allahabad. The northern side of this alluvial region shares the general characteristics of the Doáb, of which it forms the easternmost extremity. It stretches along the bank of the Ganges in a level and highly-cultivated plain, the monotony of which is only broken by patches of *usar*, whitened with the saline efflorescence known as *reh*. But the southward slope, through which the surface drainage flows into the Jumna, is furrowed by ravines. The Sasur Khaderi and other small streams, which take their rise in the watershed between the main rivers, have scooped out for themselves in the loose silt and clay a series of mimic gorges, closely simulating the beds of mountain torrents. The country to the north of the Ganges, again, presents the fertile but monotonous aspect of a rich alluvial plain. Thriving villages lie close together over all its surface; and scarcely any patches of waste land can be found amongst its fields of grain or pulses. But in the southern portion of the District, lying across the Jumna and the united channel, the strip of level fluvial

deposits does not extend beyond some 6 or 8 miles from the river bank. Above this point the country begins to rise by a series of sandstone terraces toward the Káimur range (an outlier of the great Vindhyan plateau), whose summits slope up beyond the British frontier, in the neighbouring State of Rewá. Each long roll of the terrace declivity is topped by a cultivated tableland; but the intermediate ridges are stony and untilled, covered with scrubby jungle—the haunt of leopards, wolves, and wild boars. These barren spurs have a sparse and scattered population, whose villages often lie at great distances from one another. The whole southern region is drained by the Tons, a large and rapid stream, which rises in the Bandair Hills of Bundelkhand, and after passing through the impenetrable jungles of Rewá, emerges into British territory as a formidable flood. It is spanned, near its confluence with the Ganges, by a large iron girder bridge on the East Indian Railway. The two great arterial rivers differ widely in their appearance. The waters of the Ganges are turbid and muddy; those of the Jumna have great clearness and a deep blue colour; and the sister streams can be distinguished flowing side by side for a considerable distance below their point of junction. The united river has a breadth of 3 miles just after passing the city of Allahabad. The only lake of any importance is the Alwára *jhíl*, in the extreme west of the District, a shallow but permanent sheet of water, 2½ miles long by 2 miles broad, whose marshy flats are covered with wild-duck, teal, coot, and other waterfowl. Excellent sport may also be obtained among the hills of the trans-Jumna region.

History.—In the Mahábhárata the country round Allahabad bears the name of Váranávata, and was the scene of the exile undergone by the famous Pándava brethren. At the period of the Rámáyana, the trans-Ganges region was ruled by the Rájá of Kosala; and we learn that Rámá was welcomed, on his banishment at Singror, in this District, by Guha, King of the Bhíls. The mythical hero of the Solar race crossed the Ganges in a boat, entered Allahabad, and proceeded over the Jumna into Bundelkhand. But the earliest authentic information which we possess with reference to the District is obtained from a sculptured monument in the fort at Allahabad, erected by the Buddhist King Asoka about the year B.C. 240. This pillar, a tall and slender monolith with a tapering shaft, bears in addition to the edict of its original founder, Asoka, a later inscription detailing the conquests of Samudra Gupta, about the second century after Christ; and it was re-erected in 1605 by the Mughal Emperor Jahángír, who has commemorated his accession in a Persian legend. Fah Hian, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, found the District still a part of the Kosala kingdom about A.D. 414; and two centuries later, his countryman, Hiouen Thsang, visited Prayág (the Hindu name of Allahabad), where he records

the existence of two Buddhist monasteries and many Hindu temples. From this time we know nothing of the history of Allahabad until the invasion of Shaháb-ud-dín Ghorí in 1194. The District was then conquered by the Musalmáns, in whose hands it remained until the introduction of British rule. During the 13th and 14th centuries the country round Allahabad was included in the fief of Karra, at which town the Governor had his headquarters. Karra was the scene of the famous meeting between Muiz-ud-dín and his father in 1286. The son had just succeeded Balban on the throne of Delhi, and the father was making his way up from Bengal to oppose him. They met at Karra, and, inspired with an aversion to bloodshed, conferred with each other from boats in the middle of the Ganges, and resolved to march together to the capital. Allahabad was in the possession of Ala-ud-dín at the end of the 13th century, and it was in the town of Karra that he basely murdered his uncle, the aged Sultán Firoz Sháh. Under succeeding princes, the history of the District is a tedious narrative of ambitious revolts and their barbarous suppression. About 1529 Allahabad was wrested from the Patháns by Báber, and its modern name was bestowed upon it by the Emperor Akbar. Prince Salím had his residence here as Governor during the lifetime of his father; and the mausoleum in the Khushru-bágh commemorates his rebellious son. Early in the 18th century, when the Bundelas under Chhatarsál (see BANDA) were beginning their successful national movement against the Mughal power, Allahabad was overrun by the Bundela and Marhattá chieftains. During the subsequent anarchy, the Oudh Government at one time held the supremacy; at another, the ubiquitous Marhattás were in possession; and still later, in 1765, the English restored the town to Sháh Alam, the phantom Emperor of Delhi. For some years Allahabad was the seat of the imperial court; but in 1771 Sháh Alam removed to Delhi, and threw himself into the arms of the Marhattás. The British held that his eastern dominions were vacated, and sold the abandoned Provinces to the Nawáb of Oudh for 50 *lákhs* of rupees. Sháh Alam remained a State prisoner in the hands of the Marhattás until 1803, when the victories of Lord Lake set him free. Meanwhile difficulties arose from time to time with regard to the payment of the Oudh tribute, which was permanently in arrears; and in 1801 the Nawáb agreed to a compromise, by which he made over his territory between the Ganges and the Jumna to the British Government in lieu of tribute. The District of Allahabad formed part of the tract thus ceded. During the Mutiny of 1857, the Sepoys at Allahabad revolted (June 6th), and massacred most of their officers. At the same time the populace rose throughout the city, set free the prisoners in jail, and murdered every European and Eurasian upon whom they could lay hands. Happily, however, the British forces held the fort with the aid

of a Síkh detachment; and on the 11th of June Colonel Neill arrived to take the command. The insurgents were promptly attacked and repulsed; and only a fortnight after the outbreak, the city and station were once more in the hands of the authorities. Soon afterwards, Havelock arrived at Allahabad, and, the position having been secured, the main army passed on for CAWNPORE. No further disturbance arose, and the peaceful course of administration in the District has never since been interrupted.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total number of inhabitants at 1,379,788. In 1865 the figures had risen to 1,393,183; while in 1872 the total was ascertained to be 1,396,241. The population at the last-named date resided in 3503 villages and 303,900 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 508; villages per square mile, 1·3; houses per square mile, 110; persons per village, 399; persons per house, 4·5. According to sex (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 715,110; females, 679,135; proportion of males, 51·3 per cent. According to age (exclusive of non-Asiatics), under 12 years—males, 235,340; females, 214,910; total, 450,250; above 12 years—males, 479,770; females, 464,225; total, 943,995. In religion, Allahabad is essentially a Hindu District. At the date of the Census (1872), this creed claimed 1,211,778 adherents, or 86·9 per cent.; while the faith of Islám numbered only 181,574 believers, or 13·1 per cent. The Christians and 'others' amounted to 893 souls. Amongst the Hindus, the Bráhmans formed the largest body, amounting in all to 173,916 persons. The other chief tribes were the Rájputs (49,594), Banias (43,972), Ahirs (133,240), Chamárs (136,131), Káyasths (20,996), and Kurmís (129,487). Of the Musalmáns, the Shaikhs are by far the most numerous class, having a total of 151,510 souls. As regards occupation, 234,112 adult male persons were returned as engaged in agriculture, 50,749 as domestic servants, and 32,454 as employed in commerce. There were only two towns with a population exceeding 5000—namely, Allahabad, with a total of 143,693 persons, and Mau Aima with 6189. The District contains no walled or fortified places; but the fort of Allahabad, commanding the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna, is strongly guarded, and garrisoned by a European force. A few small fortresses also line the bank of the Jumna. Most of the houses are mud-roofed, but the better sort are tiled. In the towns there are two-storied buildings, and in Allahabad itself the wealthy bankers have erected several showy mansions at Kydganj. The various trades possess their *pancháyats*, or caste guilds, which practically operate like European trades-unions. Under their influence a Bania would not be allowed to undersell his fellow-tradesmen, nor a labourer to work for less than the current rate of wages. But the *pancháyats* also take note of religious questions, and punish social or moral delinquencies by expulsion from

caste. The village community generally embraces a governing body of Thákurs, Ahirs, or Bráhmans, who own the land, and let out the greater portion to inferior cultivators; a well-to-do peasantry of Káchis, Kurmís, and Lodhs, tilling the soil under the Thákur landlords, whom they regard as a superior race; a small number of Banias, who act as bankers or shopkeepers; and finally, a labouring class, consisting of Chamárs, Pásis, and other dark-skinned races, of slighter build and inferior physique to the higher castes. Each community also includes the usual village officers—the headman, the *patwári* or accountant, the family priest, the barber, and all the minor functionaries of the native system. In 1872, 19,924 males were returned as able to read and write out of a total male population of 715,110, being at the rate of 2·1 per cent.

Agriculture.—Allahabad is one of the Districts where cultivation has nearly reached its utmost limit, very little waste land fit for tillage being now left uncultivated. The *kharíf*, or autumn crops, are sown in June, on the first appearance of the rains, and reaped in October and November. Food-stuffs are the staples of this harvest, the principal crops being rice, *joár* and *bájra* (millets). Cotton, which is sown at the same time, is not ripe for picking till February. The *rabí*, or spring crops, are sown in October and reaped in March or April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, pulses, and other grains. Manure is used for both harvests, wherever it can be obtained. As a rule, the same land is not allowed to bear two crops a year, but sometimes advantage is taken of a simple system of rotation to secure a second harvest after rice has been grown for the *kharíf*. Where there are many small proprietors, the owner often cultivates the whole of his little estate in person. More frequently, however, the greater part of an estate is leased to cultivating tenants, and only about 12 per cent. of the area is held by the proprietor as *sír*, or homestead. The tenures of land belong to the three standard classes of the North-Western Provinces—*zamíndárí*, where the land is owned in common and the profits divided by the shareholders, none of whom possesses a separate plot; *pattidárí*, where each shareholder owns a plot on his own account, while the whole estate remains answerable to Government for the revenue in common; and *bháyáchára*, where the rights and interest of each shareholder are regulated, not by ancestral custom, but by actual possession. Wages ruled as follows in 1877:—Coolies and unskilled hands, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women get about one-fifth less than men, while children under 12 are paid at from one-half to one-third. The following were the prices current of food-stuffs in 1876:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; rice, 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.; *joár*, 35 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 2d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Famines from drought occurred in Allahabad in 1770, 1783, 1803, and 1837. The latter was severely felt in this District, though its effects were not quite so disastrous as in the country to the west of Cawnpore. The *kharíf* harvest failed totally, and the *rabí* was saved with great difficulty. In 1860-61 very little rain fell in August, and none in September. It became necessary to institute relief works, but the distress did not reach the same height here as in the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand. In 1873-74, the year of the famine in Lower Bengal, severe scarcity existed in the wild and barren hill-country of the trans-Jumna *parganás*. Famine works were set on foot, and, by the prompt and vigorous action of Government, the people were enabled to tide over the season. The rains of 1874 put an end to the danger, and no further assistance was needed.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The bankers and large traders of Allahabad are chiefly Kshattriyas and Banias, though a few Bráhmans and Bengális conduct large businesses. The leading houses have agencies at Calcutta, Benares, Mirzapur, Cawnpore, Agra, and Háthras. Large quantities of cotton, grain, and miscellaneous agricultural produce are sent down the two great rivers in native sailing craft. No minerals are found in the District, except the saline earth of the *usar* plains, which is utilized for the manufacture of salt and saltpetre. The principal fair is that known as the Magh Melá, held on the plain below the fort of Allahabad in December and January. It lasts for a whole month, and is attended by as many as 250,000 persons, either for religious or commercial purposes. The great bathing-day is at the time of the full moon. The means of communication are excellent and varied. The East Indian Railway main line runs through the whole length of the District from east to west. It enters from the side of Mirzapur, and runs for 37 miles south of the Ganges; at Naini it crosses the Jumna by a magnificent iron girder bridge (1110 yards long and 106 feet above the river), and passes close to the city of Allahabad; thence it runs north-westerly through the Doáb *parganás*, and emerges from the District 43 miles from Allahabad. There are eight stations on this line within the District boundaries. The Jubbulpore (Jabalpur) branch, the through route to Bombay in connection with the Great Indian Peninsula line, runs through the trans-Jumna *parganás*, in which it has three stations. It diverges from the main line at Naini Junction, and passes into Bánda 22 miles from Allahabad. Passenger steamers plied between Calcutta and Allahabad until superseded by the railway. The Grand Trunk Road passes through the District for 75 miles from east to west, and conveys the main local traffic. Other good roads connect Allahabad with all the surrounding centres of population. There is a free public library, which contained about 8700 volumes in 1877; besides an Allahabad Institute, for the social, moral, and intellectual improvement of the people. No

vernacular journal is published in the District; but it possesses three English newspapers—the *Pioneer*, the *Pioneer Mail*, and the *Allahabad Exchange Gazette*.

Administration.—The District staff generally consists of a Collector-Magistrate, two joint-Magistrates, three assistants, and two deputies, besides the usual civil, fiscal, and constabulary officers. The total amount of revenue—imperial, local, and municipal—raised in the District in 1876 was £302,875, being at the rate of 4s. 3⅜d. per head of the population. Local funds, £49,613. In the same year the police numbered 1000 of all grades, maintained at a cost of £12,030. These figures give an average of one man to every 2·74 square miles and every 1396 of the population. The cost of maintenance was equal to £4, 7s. per square mile, and 2d. per head of the population. There are three places of confinement for prisoners in Allahabad. The Central Jail, at Naini, contains all the prisoners from the whole Division who are sentenced for a term of years exceeding five. It had a daily average number of 2451 inmates in 1875. The District Jail, in the Allahabad Station, takes the short-term prisoners only; daily average, 866 in 1875. In the Magistrate's lock-up, prisoners under trial are confined during inquiry. The worst criminals are sent to the Andamans. The Postmaster-General for the North-Western Provinces has his office in Allahabad, and there are 11 post offices in the District. The telegraph runs side by side with the railway, and has offices at all the railway stations. The Government has a head telegraph office in Allahabad, with a branch at Kattra. In 1875 there were 450 Government schools, 8 of which were for girls. Daily average attendance, 12,533 pupils. The total cost of their maintenance amounted to £3804. There is an important College at Allahabad, with Principal and Professors, for the higher education. In 1875-76 it contained 56 students. The College is affiliated to the Calcutta University. The District is subdivided into 9 *tahsíls* and 14 *parganás*. ALLAHABAD is the only municipality in the District. In 1875-76 its total receipts were returned at £21,014; from taxes, £14,877; and its expenditure at £20,512. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 2s. 0½d. per head of the population (145,864) within the boundary of the municipality.

Sanitary Aspects.—Amongst the bare sandstone hills of the trans-Jumna *parganás*, the seasons are marked by the excessive heat and dryness which characterise the adjoining principality of Rewah. Elsewhere, however, the District has the same climate as the remainder of the Doáb. Though the hot weather lasts from April to November, yet the dry west winds are not so trying here as in the upper country; and during the rains a cool breeze generally blows from the Ganges or the Jumna. The average rainfall of the 11 years from 1860 to 1871 was 38·3 inches; the greatest fall was 55·6 inches in 1870-71, and the least was 20·6 inches in

1864-65. The failure in the last-named year almost produced a famine. The general health of the District is good. Number of deaths reported in 1875, 23,224, or 16·65 per 1000 of the population. There are 9 charitable dispensaries and one hospital in the District, at which 46,528 patients obtained relief in 1875.

Allahabad.—A *tahsíl* of Allahabad District, North-Western Provinces, forming the extreme end of the wedge enclosed between the Ganges and the Jumna. Area, 300 square miles, of which 193 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 298,624. Land revenue, £20,727; total revenue, £22,806; incidence per acre, 2s. $1\frac{7}{8}$d.

Allahabad.—A city in the Allahabad District, and the seat of Government for the North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 26′ N., long. 81° 55′ 15″ E. Allahabad is the third city of the North-Western Provinces in size, and the first in administrative importance. It lies on the left bank of the Jumna, on the wedge of land formed by its confluence with the Ganges, and is distant 564 miles from Calcutta, and 89 from Benares; covers an area of 22,202 acres, and contains 31,651 houses. The population in 1872 amounted to 143,693, of whom 103,473 were Hindus, 39,379 Muhammadans, and 841 Christians or 'others.' On the angle formed by the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna stands the fort, its walls and glacis towering above the river banks. The civil station, cantonments, and city occupy the plain between the rivers; stretching back for a distance of over 6 miles from their point of junction. The town somewhat recedes from the Ganges, but reaches down to the Jumna bank, from which a few ravines run upwards into the level expanse. A large tract of low-lying land stretches along the Ganges bank, with a race-course. The English quarter is handsomely laid out with broad, well-watered roads, planted on both sides with trees. Many of the European residences stand in large *compounds*, or parks, and the Station is adorned with public buildings and gardens. The native town consists of a network of narrow streets, intersected by a few main roads. The houses are of every description, from the mud hovel of the suburbs to the garden palace of the Alopi Bágh, and the modern mansions of the wealthy native merchants in Dáraganj and Kydganj. The East Indian Railway enters the city from the east by a magnificent bridge across the Jumna. Two bridges of boats lead over the Ganges; while the great rivers afford a water-way to all the principal cities of Bengal and the North-West. The Grand Trunk Road also passes through Allahabad.

The fort and city as they now stand were founded by Akbar in 1575; but a stronghold has existed at the junction of the two rivers since the earliest times (*ante*, p. 142). It was from this post, probably, that the Aryan Kshattriyas secured their conquests on the upper valleys of the Ganges and the Jumna, or overawed the yet unsubdued

aborigines of Lower Bengal. The town was visited by Megasthenes, the ambassador of Seleucus, in the 3rd century B.C. The Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, Hiouen Thsang, in the 7th century A.D., gives a circumstantial account of the city, under the name of Prayág, which it still bears amongst the Hindu population. He describes it as 'situated at the confluence of the two rivers, to the west of a large sandy plain. In the midst of the city stood a Bráhmanical temple, to which the presentation of a single piece of money procured as much merit as that of one thousand pieces elsewhere. Before the principal room of the temple there was a large tree with wide-spreading branches, which was said to be the abode of a man-eating demon. The tree was surrounded with human bones, the remains of pilgrims who had sacrificed their lives before the temple, a practice which had been observed from time immemorial.' General Cunningham, from whom this passage is extracted, adds (1871):—'I think there can be little doubt that the famous tree here described by the pilgrim is the well-known "undecaying Banian tree," which is still an object of worship at Allahabad. This tree is now situated underground, at one side of a pillared court, which would appear to have been open formerly, and which is, I believe, the remains of the temple described by Hiouen Thsang.' The sacred Banian is next mentioned in the pages of Ráshid-ud-dín, who states that 'the tree of Prág' is situated at the confluence of the Jumna and Ganges; and this notice may be referred to the date of Mahmúd of Ghazni. The sacred relic still exists, and represents to the devout mind a large trunk with spreading branches. So far as one can be certain without digging it up, it seems to be merely a forked post or log, stuck into the ground with its bark on, and renewed secretly by the attendant priests when it threatens to decay.

During the early middle ages, Allahabad was probably in the hands of the Bhíls. The Musalmáns first conquered it in 1194, under the guidance of Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori; and for two centuries the surrounding country formed part of the Karrah Province, until that Division was merged in the eastern principality of JAUNPUR. Bábar wrested the District from the Patháns in 1529, and in 1575 Akbar renamed the city and erected the fort. Towards the end of Akbar's reign, Prince Salím, afterwards the Emperor Jahángir, held the governorship of Allahabad, and lived in the fort. On Salím's accession, his son Khusru rebelled against him, but was defeated and made over to the custody of his brother Khurram, the future Emperor Sháh Jahán. Khusru died in 1615, and the mausoleum in the Khusru Bágh at Allahabad was erected in his honour. Throughout the 18th century, Allahabad experienced the usual reverses of Upper India during the disastrous period of Mughal decline. In 1736 it fell into the hands of the Marhattás, who held it till 1750, when the city was sacked by the

Patháns of Farrukhabad. In 1753, Safdar Jang, the Nawáb of Oudh, seized upon the city, and retained possession till 1765. The English, after their victory at Buxar (October 1764), restored it to the Emperor Sháh Alam (1765). But in 1771, when he threw himself into the hands of the Marhattás, they held it had escheated, and sold it to the Nawáb of Oudh for 50 *lákhs* of rupees. As the Nawáb's tribute was in a state of perpetual and progressive arrears, an arrangement was effected in November 1801, by which the city and District, together with the Doáb generally, were ceded to the British. Allahabad was the seat of the Provincial Government from 1834 to 1835, when it was removed to AGRA. During the Mutiny of 1857, Allahabad became the scene of one of the most serious outbreaks and massacres which occurred in the North-Western Provinces. On the evening of June 6th, the 6th Native Infantry broke into revolt, and murdered most of their officers. Next morning the station was burnt and plundered, and every European found in it was massacred. On the 11th, General Neill reached Allahabad with reinforcements, and the city and station were recovered on the 18th. Havelock arrived shortly after, and the united force moved on to CAWNPUR. Though the surrounding country remained for a time in rebellion, there was no further disturbance in Allahabad itself. In 1858, after the suppression of the Mutiny, Allahabad was definitively selected as the seat of Government for the North-Western Provinces.

The fort still forms a striking object from the river. It crowns the point where the Ganges and the Jumna unite. But the ancient castle of the Musalmán governors no longer remains; the high towers having been cut down, and the stone ramparts topped with turfed parapets and fronted with a sloping *glacis*. The changes, rendered necessary by modern military exigencies, have greatly detracted from the picturesqueness of the fort as a relic of antiquity. Within the enclosure lie the officers' quarters, powder magazine, and barracks, while the old palace is now utilized as an arsenal. An enclosure and garden just inside the gateway contains the celebrated pillar of Asoka, which bears an edict of this great Buddhist Emperor, *circ.* 240 B.C. The pillar was further inscribed in the 2nd century A.D. with a record of Samudra Gupta's victories and sovereignty over the various nations of India. It was re-erected by the Mughal Emperor Jahángir, who added a Persian legend, to commemorate his accession in 1605 A.D. Finally, it was set up in its present position by a British officer in 1838. Near the pillar stands the subterranean temple which covers the undying Banian tree. This building, dictated to Siva, passes as the place where the Saraswati, or SARSUTI, unites with the Ganges and the Jumna. The moisture on the walls of the underground chambers affords sufficient proof of its existence for the satisfaction of devotees. The Khusru

Bágh, or garden and mausoleum of Prince Khusru, stands close to the railway station. The tomb consists of a handsome domed building, in the style of the Táj, the interior being painted with birds and flowers. Two minor mausoleums occupy sites in its neighbourhood. Among noteworthy modern buildings are the Government offices and courts, the European Barracks, the Roman Catholic Cathedral, and the Thornhill and Mayne Memorial. The Central College, designed to be the chief educational establishment of the North-Western Provinces, is now (1877) in course of erection. Sir W. Muir instituted the scheme, and Lord Northbrook laid the foundation stone in 1874. The Mayo Memorial and Town Hall will, when finished, complete the list of handsome public buildings. Government House stands in a park-like enclosure on slightly rising ground, and has a central suite of public rooms, with a long curved wing on either side containing the private apartments.

Allahabad is not famous for any particular trade or manufacture, but it has long been a mart of considerable general importance; and since the formation of the railway system of Upper India enormous quantities of goods pass through the town. There is a flourishing local trade in gold and silver ornaments and in European furniture; but Allahabad is rather an exchange mart for the purchase and sale of goods produced at other places, than a depôt for articles manufactured within the city itself. A great religious fair, known as the Magh Melá, is held in December and January on the plain near the fort, just above the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna. It is one of the largest in the Province, being sometimes visited by about 250,000 persons. The great bathing-day is at the full moon, but pilgrims and traders attend the sacred spot throughout the whole month. The religious ablutions are presided over by a peculiar class of Bráhmans, who bear a bad character for turbulence and licentiousness.

The local administration of Allahabad is conducted by a municipal committee comprising 25 members, of whom 6 are official, 16 are elected, and 3 nominated. In 1875-76 the total municipal revenue amounted to £21,014 (of which £14,877 was due to taxes), while the gross expenditure was £20,512. Incidence of municipal taxation, 2s. 0½d. per head of the population (145,864) within municipal boundaries.

Allah Bandh.—On the southern frontier of Sind. Lat. 24° 21′ N., long. 69° 11′ E. A long bank of earth, partly saline, mixed with sand and shells; about 50 miles in length, and in places 16 miles broad. It was upheaved by the earthquake of 1819 across the Puráná branch of the Indus. In 1826 an overflow of the Indus breached the Bandh, the waters expanding just below the cutting into a vast lake (called by Burnes the 'Lake of Sidree'), now merged in the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh).

Allamparwa.—Small village in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 16′ N., long. 80° 3′ E. Situated on the coast, on the southern confines of the Chingleput District, about midway between Pondicherry and Chingleput town. It was granted to Dupleix by Muzaffar Jang, the Subahdár of the Deccan, in 1750, and was the scene of many events during the struggle between the French and English. In 1758, a severe naval engagement between the squadrons of these nations was fought opposite the village. It was a French depôt and fort during the siege of Madras, and was captured by Sir Eyre Coote in 1760. Formerly famous for its oyster-beds.

Allan-myo.—Frontier town, Thayet-Myo District, British Burma. On left bank of the Irrawaddy (Irawadi), and close to the old Burmese town of Myedai. Lat. 19° 21′ 25″ N., long. 95° 17′ 30″ E. Built during the Burmese War, it has rapidly risen in importance, and is now a flourishing seat of export trade for the country east of the Irrawaddy. Called after Major Allan, who demarcated the adjoining boundary line between British and Independent Burma. The residence of an Assistant Commissioner. Pop. (1872), 9697.

Alleppi (*Aulapolay*, *Allapalli*).—Chief port and second largest town in the Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 29′ 45″ N., long. 76° 22′ 31″ E.; houses, 6231; population, 29,918. Situated on the coast 33 miles south of Cochin, and 366 from Madras; it lies between the sea and an extensive tract of paddy-fields bordering the backwater, which here forms an extensive lake. The export trade has an average annual value of £172,500, and consists chiefly of vegetable produce, coffee, cardamoms, ginger, pepper, cocoa-nuts, and coir. It is a depôt for the products of the Travancore forests. The annual import trade amounts in value to £1700. The harbour returns for 1875-76 show a total of 358 ships of all kinds as having called, viz. 66 steamers, 94 sailing vessels, and 198 native craft, aggregating a tonnage of 82,829. Excellent anchorage always available; for although there is no protecting headland, a very remarkable mud bank, or floating mud island, breaks the force of the roughest seas and ensures shelter to vessels in the roadstead. The lighthouse bears a revolving light, visible 18 miles out at sea.

A canal connects the port with the great backwater to the north-east, and passes through the centre of the town at right angles to all the main streets, which cross it by six bridges. A tramway, worked by elephants, conveys heavy goods from the beach to the warehouses. The soil on which the town is built is sandy; the general health is good; average mean temperature, 82°. Among the public buildings are the Rájá's palace, the *zilá* and *munsif's* courts, postal, telegraph, and (Rájá's) customs offices; also a school and a church, built by Protestant missionaries. To the last is attached a small Christian community.

Bartolomeo records that Alleppi was opened to foreign trade in 1762,

and mentions the canal from the port to the backwater as being then in existence. In 1809 a detachment of European soldiers and Company's Sepoys, who had halted here on their way up the coast, were treacherously massacred by the Nairs.

Allúr (or *Pantalallúru*).—Town in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 41′ 30″ N., long. 80° 5′ 21″ E.; houses, 1099; pop. 5530,—mainly rice cultivators; three fine tanks provide ample irrigation. Sub-magistrate's court, post office, travellers' bungalow.

Allúr *cum* **Kottapatnam.**—Village on the sea-coast, in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 15° 27′ (Allúr) and 15° 26′ 40″ (Kottapatnam) N., long. 80° 9′ 45″ (Allúr) and 80° 12′ 15″ (Kottapatnam) E. Pop. 6991, nearly 30 per cent. being of the trading caste of Kamattis; houses, 1529. The export trade consists chiefly in the dry grains and oil-seeds of Cumbum (Kambam), Dupád, and the Addanki country. The coast canal from Madras passes through the town. It is the station of a superintendent of sea customs and a sub-magistrate.

Almod.—Chiefship in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces, consisting of 29 villages, situated among the Mahádeo Hills. Lat. 22° 23′ 30″ N., long. 78° 25′ E. The *zamíndár* is one of the Bhopás or hereditary guardians of the Mahádeo temples. He receives from the Government an annual allowance of £20 in lieu of pilgrim tax, less a quit-rent on his estate of £4.

Almora.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of KUMAUN DISTRICT, North-Western Provinces; 5494 feet above sea level. Lat. 29° 35′ 16″ N., long. 79° 41′ 16″ E.; pop. (1872), 6260, comprising 5320 Hindus, 795 Muhammadans, and 145 'others.' It stands on the crest of a ridge, and for centuries formed one of the strongholds of its native rulers, in whose history it played an important part. In 1744, the aggressions of the Rohillás sent a Muhammadan force for the first time into Kumaun. They captured and plundered Almora, but after a few months retired, disgusted with the poverty of the country and the rigours of the climate. The country round Almora again formed an important strategical centre in the Gurkhá War of 1815, which was concluded by the evacuation of the post on the 26th of April, after a heavy cannonade by Colonel Nicholls, and the surrender of the town and Kumaun to the British power. Almora is a substantially-built and prosperous little town, and the local demand for labour is so great that a hillman can pay his whole land tax for a year by a week's work at the station. Municipal revenue, chiefly from house tax, in 1875-76, £268; from taxes, £261; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 3⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Alo-daw-ra.—Revenue circle, Prome District, British Burma; situated on the river Naweng, 19 miles north-east of Prome. Revenue (1876-77), £692. Pop. (1876), 5476.

Alún (*Aloon*).—Revenue circle, Henzada District, British Burma; situated in the north-western corner of a hilly and forest-covered country. Cultivation of rice, cotton, etc., almost entirely carried on by the *toungya* or nomadic system of tillage. Gross revenue (1876), £441; pop. 1634.

Alúr.—Municipal village in Hassan District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 59′ N., long. 76° 3′ E.; pop. (1871), 721; municipal revenue, (1874-75), £64; rate of taxation, 1s. 9d. per head. Chief rice mart of Hassan District.

Alúr.—*Táluk* of Bellary District, Madras. Area, 677 square miles; pop. (1871), 94,282, of whom 13 per cent. were Muhammadans; revenue (1870-71), £35,930, the land contributing three-fourths. Of the total acreage (405,530) about 90 per cent. is under cultivation, 341,396 acres being 'dry,' and only 652 'wet.' The large proportion under crops is due to the fact of the soil being of the best black cotton description, rendering this small *táluk* one of the richest in the District; while the remarkably small area of 'wet' cultivation is due to the absence of irrigation channels and tanks, the only river, the Hugri, being almost useless for agricultural purposes, from its wide sandy margins and shifting bed. The dead level of the country, too, makes artificial storage extremely difficult. About 60 miles of road intersect the *táluk* and connect the chief towns, Alúr, Harivanam, Molagavellí, Chikka Hottúr, Hollalgúndí, and Chippagiri. Besides these there are 99 unimportant villages.

Alúr.—Town on the Trunk Road in the Alúr *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 1694. Except as the headquarters of the *táluk*, of no importance. Travellers' bungalow, several minor official establishments, police station, grant-in-aid school.

Alvarkurichchi.—Town in Tinnevelly District, Madras. Lat. 8° 47′ 45″ N., long. 77° 25′ 45″ E.; houses, 1249; pop. (1871), 6015. Situated on the right bank of the Chindinthura river, 19 miles south-east of Tinnevelly.

Alwa (*Aláva*).—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 3 square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £550. The Chief, Alam Khán, is a Chauhan Rájput, and pays tribute of £6, 14s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Alwar.—Native State in Rájputána.—*See* ULWUR.

Alwaye.—Town in the Kannutanád District of Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 10° 6′ 50″ N., long. 76° 23′ 31″ E.; houses, 576; pop. (1871), 2761. The Portuguese and Dutch selected it as the sanitarium of Cochin, and such it is still considered. Situated on the river Alwaye (Peryár), 20 miles from Cochin.

Alwaye.—River in the Cochin State, Madras; named by the early Portuguese the 'Fiera d'Alva.' It forms a branch of the Peryár, which

it joins at Alwaye town, and enters the Cochin estuary a few miles from that city. Cochin derives its drinking water from the Alwaye river.

Amalápúram (' *The Sinless City*').—Town in the Gódávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 34′ 20″ N., long. 82° 2′ 40″ E.; houses, 1174; pop. (1871), 7083. Sub-magistrate's court. Situated in the delta of the Gódávari river.

Amalner.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Khandesh District, Bombay. On the left bank of the river Bori, 21 miles north-east of Dhulia (Dhulen), and about a mile from the high road from Bombay to Agra. Lat. 21° 1′ 45″ N., long. 75° 7′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 7564; municipal revenue (1874-75), £48; rate of taxation, 1½d. per head. The town has a sub-judge's court, and a post office. A large fair is held annually in the month of May.

Amalyára.—Tributary State subordinate to the Political Agency of Mahi Kánta, in Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 59′ and 23° 21′ N. lat., and between 72° 44′ and 73° 14′ E. long.; pop. (1872), 10,661; estimated area under cultivation, 35,916 *bíghás*. Principal crops, cereals, especially millets. For administrative purposes the State is included in the Watrak Subdivision of the Mahi Kánta territory. Estimated gross yearly revenue, £2000. One school, with 43 pupils. The family of the Chief are Hindus, Khánt Kolis by caste. In matters of succession they follow the rule of primogeniture, but do not hold a *sanad* authorizing adoption. The present (1875) Chief, Amarsinh, is thirty-seven years of age. He has the title of Thákur, and pays to the Gáekwár of Baroda an annual tribute of £31, 13s. 4d.

Amalyára.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Bombay; 34 miles north-east of Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 13′ N., long. 73° 5′ 20″ E.

Amánat.—The chief feeder of the NORTH KOEL river, Bengal; rises in the hilly *parganá* of Kundá in Hazáribágh District, and, flowing east, joins the North Koel a little north of Daltonganj in Lohárdagá. Its bed is sandy throughout.

Amániganj.—Market village, Bara Banki District, Oudh. Annual *bázár* sales about £2770, chiefly agricultural produce and cotton cloth. Pop. (1869), 1600. Government school.

Amániganj-hát.—The chief silk mart in Maldah District, Bengal. Traders come to this village from the neighbouring Districts of Murshidabad and Rájsháhí to buy silk, and it is said that, on the weekly market-day, silk to the value of from £2000 to £5000 is often sold.

Amárapur.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 14° 8′ N., long. 77° 1′ 15″ E.; houses, 764; pop. (1871), 5442. Formerly called Nadimepalli. Situated on the route from Chitaldroog to Chittúr. Large weekly market.

Amárapura (' *The City of the Gods*').—A town of Independent

Burma, situated on the east bank of the Irrawaddy (Irawadi) river. Lat. 21° 57′ N., long. 73° 4′ E. It was founded in 1783, as a new capital for the Burmese kingdom. It increased rapidly in size, and in 1810 its population was estimated at 170,000; but in that year the town was destroyed by fire, and this disaster, together with the removal of the Native Court in 1819, caused a decline in the prosperity of the place. It remained the capital till 1822. In 1827 its population was calculated at only 30,000. An estimate made by Major Grant Allan from an enumeration of the houses (in 1855) gave the population within the walls at 26,670, or, including the immediate suburbs, 90,000. Since then it has suffered another severe calamity from an earthquake, which in 1839 destroyed the greater part of the city. It was resumed as capital about 1838, soon after the accession of Tharawadi in 1837; and had been re-occupied before the earthquake of 1839. It remained till the king (who has recently died) removed the seat of his government to Mandalay, about 1860. It is regularly laid out; but, with the exception of a few temples, the town is built only of bamboos, although several of the buildings, being richly gilt, have a showy appearance. The most remarkable edifice is a celebrated temple, adorned with 250 lofty pillars of gilt wood, and containing a colossal bronze statue of Buddha. The remains of the palace of the Burmese monarchs still exist in the centre of the town. During the time of its prosperity, Amarapura was defended by a rampart and a large square citadel, with a broad moat, the walls being 7000 feet long and 20 feet high, with a bastion at each corner. Whilst it was the capital, a very few of the principal houses were of timber, the others being built of bamboo. The Chinese quarter was of brick.

Amárapúram.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 5442. On the high road; with a fine tank and important weekly market. According to local tradition, the ancient name of the town was Nadimepalli, and the old site is pointed out about half a mile to the west of the present village. In the vicinity are some of the finest *dopair* gardens in the District.

Amarkantak.—Hill in Bilåspur District, Central Provinces; 3500 feet above sea level. Lat. 22° 40′ 15″ N., long. 81° 48′ 15″ E. Interesting for its temples around the sources of the sacred river Nerbudda (Narbadá), and for its waterfalls.

Amarnáth (or *Ambarnáth*, literally 'Immortal Lord,' a name of Siva).—Small village of about 300 inhabitants, in Tanna District, Bombay. The old Hindu temple, situated in a pretty valley less than a mile east of the village, is interesting as a specimen of genuine Hindu architecture, possibly dating as far back as the 11th century A.D. An inscription found in it is dated Sak 982 (A.D. 1060). It was probably erected by Mámvánirájá, the son of Chittarájádeva, a Mahámandaleswara, or

feudatory king of the Konkan under the Chálukya of Kalyán, in the Deccan. The temple itself faces the west, but the *mandap* or *antarála*, the entrance hall, has also doors to the north and south. Each of the three doors has a porch, approached by four or five steps, and supported by four nearly square pillars—two of them attached to the wall. The *mandap* is 22 feet 9 inches square. The roof of the hall is supported by four very elaborately carved columns. In their details no two of them are exactly alike; but, like the pillars in the cave temples of Ajantá, they have been wrought in pairs, the pair next the shrine being if possible the richer. The *gabhárá* or shrine, which is also square, measures 13 feet 8 inches each way. It appears to have been stripped of its ornamentation, and now only contains the remains of a small *linga* sunk in the floor. The outside of the building is beautifully carved. The principal sculptures are a three-headed figure with a female on his knee, probably intended to represent Mahádeva and Párvatí; and on the south-east side of the Vimána, Kálí. The sculpture, both on the pillars of the hall and round the outside, shows a skill not surpassed on any temple in the Presidency. For a more detailed account, illustrated with fifteen plates, see *Indian Antiquary*, vol. iii. pp. 316 ff. (Nov. 1874).

Ambagarh Chauki.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 35′ and 20° 51′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 31′ 15″ and 80° 52′ E. long. Hilly, with large tracts of jungle; but towards the Raipur side fairly cultivated. Excellent iron ore is found. Inhabitants, Gonds, and a few Gaulís. The *zamíndár* ranks third of the Chánda chiefs.

Ambahta.—Town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces; 16 miles south-west of Saháranpur. Lat. 29° 51′ 15″ N., long. 77° 22′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 6039, comprising 3272 Muhammadans and 2767 Hindus; area, 55 acres. Residence of the Pírzádah family of Sayyids, one of whose ancestors, Sháh Abul Másli, a celebrated personage in the 17th century, has a handsome tomb, with dome and minarets, in the middle of the town. The family still hold several revenue-free grants, and one representative lives in the fort. Two mosques, police outpost, branch post office, well-kept school. Village police of 13 men; income under Act xx. of 1856, £245 in 1873; incidence of local taxation, 9⅜d. per head.

Ambaji-durga.—Hill in Kolar District, Mysore State; 4399 feet above sea level; formerly fortified by Tippu Sultán. Lat. 13° 23′ 40″ N., long. 78° 3′ 25″ E.

Ambajipetta.—Town in Gódávari District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 3657.

Ambálá.—Division, District, *tahsíl*, and town in the Punjab.—*See* UMBALLA.

Ambarnáth.—Temple in Bombay.—*See* AMARNATH.

Ambásamudram (*Anandasamundrum*).—*Táluk* in Tinnevelly District, Madras. Area, about 300 square miles, with 40,675 houses; pop. (1871), 163,215; density, 540 persons per square mile, the highest proportion in the District. The females are in excess of the males, being 86,575 in number. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 150,345, with a larger proportion of Bráhmans than any other *táluk* of the District; Muhammadans, 8042; Christians, 4828. The number of Christians is due to the fact that a branch of the Syrian Church, existing in Western India in the 15th century, extended its operations to this District at a very early period (*see* TINNEVELLY). Chief town, Ambásamudram.

Ambásamudram (*Anandasamundrum*).—Town in the Ambásamudram *táluk*, Tinnevelly District, Madras. Lat. 8° 42′ 45″ N., long. 77° 29′ 15″ E.; houses, 2121; pop. 8604.

Ambatipetta (*Ambatebetta*).—Peak in the Bramhagiri or Marenád range of the Western Gháts, Coorg, near the village of Viráj-pet.

Ambatmuri.—Pass in the Uppinangadi *táluk*, South Kanara District, Madras; between 13° 0′ 45″ and 13° 4′ N. lat., and between 75° 29′ 15″ and 75° 33′ 45″ E. long. It leads into Mysore, but is little used.

Amber.—The ancient, but now decayed and deserted, capital of Jeypore (Jaipur) State, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 58′ 45″ N., long. 75° 52′ 50″ E. Lies about 4 miles north-east of the present capital, JEYPORE TOWN. The name occurs in Ptolemy. Its picturesque situation, at the mouth of a rocky mountain gorge, in which nestles a little lake, has attracted the admiration of travellers. The margin of the lake is dotted over with beautiful buildings, and the mountain slopes which surround it are clothed with lofty trees of rich dark-green foliage. Jacquemont and Heber have both recorded the deep impression made by the lovely beauty of the scene. The old palace ranks second only to Gwalior as a specimen of Rájput architecture. Commenced about 1600 A.D.—about a century later than the Gwalior palace—by the Mán Sinh, who erected the Observatory at Benares, it was completed early in the 18th century by Siwái Jái Sinh, who added the beautiful gateway which bears his name, before transferring his capital to Jeypore city in 1728. It lacks the fresh and vigorous stamp of Hindu originality which characterised the earlier buildings at Gwalior, and instead of standing on a lofty pedestal of rock, it lies low. But nothing could be more picturesque than the way in which it grows, as it were, out of its rocky base, and reflects its architectural beauties on the water. The interior arrangements are excellent, the suites of rooms form vistas opening upon striking views of the lake. The ornamentation and technical details are free from the feebleness which had already begun to paralyze Hindu architecture;

although they bear the impress of that influence which Akbar managed to stamp on everything done during his reign. The fort is connected with the palace, and defended it from higher up the hill. It was used as the Treasury and State Prison. Amber contains many large and handsome temples, and was at one time much frequented by ascetics and religious devotees from all parts of India. A small temple, where a goat was every morning offered up to Kálí, preserves the tradition of a daily human sacrifice on the same spot in the pre-historic times anterior to Rájput ascendency. Few of the temples, however, are now maintained, and the glory of Amber has departed. The palace, although still kept in good order, and occasionally visited by the chief, is generally silent and deserted, the locked doors being guarded by a sleepy sentinel. The fort crowns the summit of a hill 400 or 500 feet above the palace. It has been from time immemorial the State Treasury, and remains so to the present day; the Kachawa Rájputs having engaged, on wresting the fort from the Minas, to maintain the Treasury here for ever. Mr. Fergusson, from whose work some of the foregoing sentences have been condensed, has given an excellent description of Amber in his *History of Eastern Architecture*, p. 480, ed. 1867.

Ambgaon.—*Parganá* in Chánda District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 38′ 30″ N., long. 79° 59′ 45″ E.; area, with its dependent *zamíndáris* (excluding Ahíri), 1212 square miles. It contains 67 villages and 4 *zamíndárís*. Hilly, and, except near the Wainganga river, covered with jungle; much intersected by tributaries of the Wainganga. Chief productions, rice, *tasar* silk, and jungle products, with large import trade in salt from the east coast. Telegu is spoken in the south, Marhattá in the north. The local traders of the *parganá* are Telingas. Principal place of interest, MARKANDI; largest villages, GARHCHIROLI and Chámursí.

Ambulupáli.—Town in the Ambulupáli *táluk* of the Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 23′ N., long. 76° 24′ 30″ E.; pop. 2879; houses, 675. A canal connects it with Alleppi, and a great annual festival held here in April attracts some local trade. Headquarters of the District, magistrates' and *munsifs'* courts. Famous in history as the scene of Fra Paolo Bartolomeo's protest against the compulsory attendance of Christians at Hindu festivals. Until 1754 it was the capital of the Chembagachari Rájás.

Ambúr (*Ambúrdrúg*, *Petambur*).—Town in the Vellore *táluk*, North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 50′ 25″ N., long. 78° 44′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 9950, one-half being Muhammadans; houses, 1481. A well-built and compact town, situated 79 miles from Bangalore, 112 miles (by rail) from Madras, at the foot of the Kadanapatam Pass, which leads from the Eastern Hills of the Báramahál; it lies

on the south bank of the Pálár river. The Ambúr Drúg peak towers above the town. It possesses a considerable trade in oils, *ghí*, and indigo, which the Labbay merchants (Nagore Muhammadans) collect here for export to Madras both above and below the *ghát*, but since the opening of the railway in 1860 Ambúr has lost its monopoly of the *ghát*-carrying trade. The railway returns for 1875 showed a passenger traffic (to and from Ambúr) of 58,640 persons, and of goods 5385 tons, the total receipts being £5609. The fort, situated on the almost inaccessible Ambúr Drúg, and commanding an important pass into the Carnatic, was in past times keenly contested. In 1750, the first pitched battle in the great wars of the Carnatic was fought under its walls, remarkable for the defeat of Anwar-ud-dín, the Nawáb of Arcot, by Muzaffar Jang; and as the first occasion in which European troops played a conspicuous part in Indian warfare. In 1768, the fort was very gallantly defended by the 10th Regiment of Madras Infantry. Twenty years later it was besieged by Haidar Alí, and taken; only, however, to be restored by the Treaty of Mangalore. In the expeditions against Mysore, in 1792 and 1799, this fortress was occupied as a point of great importance on the line of communications.

Ambúrpet.—Town in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 47′ 15″ N., long. 78° 45′ 15″ E.; houses, 1146; pop. (1871), 7159. A suburb of VANIAMBADI.

Amethi.—*Parganá*, Sultanpur District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Isauli and Sultanpur *parganás*, on the east by Tappa Asl, on the south by Partabgarh District, and on the west by Rokha Jáis *parganá*. Amethi is an important *parganá*, occupied by a clan of Kshattriyas, known as the Bandhalgotis. Of the 365 villages comprising the *parganá*, all but one are owned by this clan. Rájá Madhu Sinh's estate consists of 318 villages, covering an area of 265 square miles, and paying a Government land revenue of £19,641. The Bandhalgoti clan is confined to Amethi, and does not possess a single village outside the *parganá*. The members are alleged to be descended from a female bamboo-splitter who married a servant of the Rájá of Hasanpur. It is alleged that they still, on certain ceremonial occasions, make religious offerings to a specimen of the ancestral implement—the *bánka* or knife used in splitting the bamboo. The Bandhalgotis themselves, however, repudiate this humble origin. According to their own account they are Surjájbans Kshattriyas, belonging to the branch of the clan now represented by the Rájá of Jeypore, and descended from a scion of that house, who 900 years ago, when on a pilgrimage to Ajodhya, was led to settle here through a vision, by which it was disclosed to him that he and his successors were to become the hereditary lords of this part of the country. Area of the *parganá*, 299 square miles, of which 131 are cultivated; pop. (1869), Hindus,

155,261; Muhammadans, 5491; total, 160,752,—residing in 365 villages. Average density of population, 538 per square mile.

Amethi Dungar.—Town, Lucknow District, Oudh; 17 miles from Lucknow, on the road to Sitapur. Lat. 26° 45′ 20″ N.; long. 81° 12′ E. An ancient town, supposed to be of Bhar origin. It has repeatedly changed hands between the Hindus and Musalmáns, and the inhabitants belong to these religions in about equal proportions. Pop. (1869), 7128; houses, 1494. Seat of flourishing weaving trade; thriving export trade in hides and horns; Government school.

Amherst. — A District in Tenasserim Division, British Burma; lying between 14° 59′ and 17° 51′ N. lat., and between 97° 30′ and 98° 53′ E. long.; area, 15,205 square miles; population in 1872, 239,940. Bounded on the north by the Salwín (Salween) and Kyún-iek rivers and by their tributaries; on the east by the Daunat (Dawna) Mountains; on the south by the Ma-hlwai, a spur of the same range; and on the west by the Gulf of Martaban. The administrative Head-quarters of the District and Division are at Maulmain town.

Physical Aspects.—Amherst District occupies the country lying north, south, and east of the mouths of the Salwín (Salween), Gyaing, and Attaran. It consists of the alluvial plains watered by these rivers; shut in on the east by the Dawna Hills, on the west by the low Toung-gnyo chain, running parallel to the coast. In the extreme east is a narrow and densely-wooded region, broken by the Dawna range and its spurs; to the south is the valley of the Re, situated between the Toung-gnyo Hills and the sea, drained by numerous streams, with a general direction to the west. Tha-htún, or the country between the rivers Salwín (Salween) and Bhíleng (Bheeleng), has one main chain running northwards; Bhílúgywon, an island one mile west of Maulmain, and a township of Amherst District, is also traversed by a ridge of hills from north to south. The chief mountains in the District are the Dawna, starting from the Múlai-yit Hill, an immense mass of rock, 5500 feet high, in 16° 5′ 45″ N. lat., and 98° 42′ 3″ E. long. They throw out numerous spurs, and run north-west for 200 miles, dividing the waters of the Houng-tharaw and Hlaing-bhwai from those of the Thoung-yeng. This range presents in most parts the appearance of a wooded plateau of laterite cut up by drainage into hills. At places the underlying rocks project into the bed of the Thoung-yeng, and indicate volcanic agency. The main range and its offshoots form the water-shed between the Bay of Bengal and Gulf of Siam. The hills to the west of the main range undulate for some distance gently to the south-ward, but end in barren limestone ridges. From the Tsadaik Hill, in 15° 17′ 25″ N. lat., and 95° 15′ E. long., the Toung-gnyo chain extends north-west to Maulmain, forming the Attaran watershed, and finally disappears in a small island in the Salwín (Salween). North of Maulmain

and east of this river is a short range of limestone rocks (16 miles long), called Zwai-ka-beng. The main chain terminates at Kama-thaing, a little to the south of the Kyún-iek, the northern boundary of the District. There are two passes across these hills; the northern one a cart tract from Kyouk-tsaril; the southern one a metalled road from Zemathway to Tha-htún (Tha-htoon). Large quantities of paddy are annually brought by the latter route to Maulmain *viâ* the rivers Bhenglaing and Salwín. Several passes over the Dawna range connect the District with Siamese territory. The most important leads from Myawadi, an old and once fortified town on the Thoung-yeng to Rahaing, 45 miles east; and in the south-west monsoon, boats go down the Meinam from this town to Bangkok in eight days. The journey from Maulmain to Bangkok, by the famous pass of the Three Pagodas, occupies on an average 25 days. The route is by boat up the Attaran as far as Kanní (Kannee), and thence by elephants across the watershed.

CHIEF RIVERS. — The Salwín, Gyaing, Attaran, Thoung-yeng, Bhfleng. (1) The SALWIN rises in Chinese territory, and after a tortuous course falls into the sea at Maulmain, where it is joined by the rivers Gyaing and Attaran. Its channel is broad, shallow, and obstructed by shoals, rendering it unnavigable by sea-going vessels, except at its southern mouth. Just below Martaban, the Salwín is divided into two branches by Bhílú (Bheeloo) island. Its chief tributaries are the Rwonzaleng, a river of the Salwín Hill Tracts and the Bhenglaing. The GYAING, formed by the junction of the Hlaing-bhwai and the Houng-tharaw, flows almost due west. It is choked by islands and sandbanks, but is navigated by native boats all the year round. The Houng-tharaw valley consists of several plateaus, separated by abrupt descents. The ATTARAN river is formed by the junction of the Zamí (Zamee) and Wengraw. It is a narrow, deep, and sluggish stream flowing for part of its course between high banks, shut in by dense overhanging foliage. The THOUNG-YENG rises in the Dawna Hills, and after a north-west course of 197 miles, joins the Salwín. Its breadth varies from 100 to 1000 feet, but numerous rapids render it unnavigable. Off the coast, a little south of 16° N. lat., is Double Island, with a lighthouse showing a first-order dioptric fixed light, with a catadioptric mirror, visible 19 miles.

THE TEAK FORESTS of Amherst District are extensive. Those on the Dawna Hills rank among the most important in British Burma. For conservancy purposes they are divided into five tracts—viz., the Dúnthamí (Doonthamee), Hlaing-bhwai, Thoung-yeng, Houng-tharaw, and Attaran. (1) The Dúnthamí forests, between the rivers Dúnthamí and Salwín, cover 60 square miles, and, in 1859, contained 14,340 first-class trees growing on dry ground. Excellent 'crooks' for shipbuilding are obtained, and the rivers afford the means of

transit. (2) The Hlaing-bhwai and Lower Salwín forests are east of the Salwín, and on the Hlaing-bhwai and its feeders, and are chiefly valuable for their supply of crooked timber. Teak is found here only on level ground; but its growth is irregular, owing principally to the remains of old *toungya* cultivation. The teak forests are open and much exposed to jungle fires. (3) The Thoung-yeng forests, on the hills forming the west watershed of the Thoung-yeng river, contain regularly-grown trees of gigantic size. Bamboo and *pyenggado* also abound in this tract. The teak localities in parts are hedged in by dense evergreen forest, stretching down to the banks of the Thoung-yeng and its tributaries. Some of the most valuable teak in British Burma is found on the sandstone of the hills between the Thoung-yeng and its tributary, the Mai-hpa-lai. In one locality, 550 first-class trees occupied an area of $\frac{1}{3}$ square mile. These are tall and regular. Of five trees taken at random from among the larger ones of the Mai-hpa-lai forest, the average girth was 11 feet, and the length of stem to first branch 74 feet. Higher up the hills, teak localities give place to impenetrable forests, where the height of the trees nearly equals that of the Wellingtonia of California. A specimen of *dipterocarpus* had a girth of 20 feet, and a height to the first branch of 160 feet. (4) The Houng-tharaw forests have been stripped of their best trees; teak is now found only in isolated patches. At one locality above the fall of the '99 islands,' the trees were magnificent; but the teak had been converted into short logs and afterwards abandoned, owing to the impossibility of conveyance down the channel between the islands. These logs, after ten years' exposure, were still sound. During the last few years attempts have been made to clear the channel of the Houng-tharaw by blasting. In 1873-74, 545 tons of stone were thus removed near the '99 islands.' (5) The Attaran forests are situated on both banks of the Zamí (Zamee) and Wengraw, and cover an area of 100 square miles. For some years after the cession of Martaban and Tenasserim, the timber was so recklessly felled—the grantees working for speedy returns—that in 1850 only two small teak forests had been left. In 1860 the greater number of trees were found to be hollow or attacked with epiphytic ficus. At this time it was proposed that these tracts should continue in the hands of private parties; subsequently, however, they were declared 'reserved Government forests.' Such tracts were worked under one-year permits for the removal of seasoned timber only. Where the private tenure was recognised, thirty-year permits were given, and the removal of timber under 7 feet 6 inches in girth was strictly prohibited. *Padouk*, furnishing a hard, heavy wood; *anan* (Fragrœa fragrans), a timber hardening under water; *pyengma*, *thenggan* (Hopea odorata), and numerous other valuable timbers abound.

THE GEOLOGICAL FORMATION of Amherst District has never been

completely examined by a professional survey. A conspicuous and picturesque feature in the country round Maulmain and in the Salwín valley, is the massive limestone occurring in steeply-scarped hills with overhanging cliffs, which exhibit the appearance of what they undoubtedly were at no remote period in geologic time, *i.e.* sea-girt rocks. These, even now, during the rains can only be approached by boats. In the hills there are 23 groups of caves, of which those above the sea level promise a rich harvest to future explorers. Lead ore occurs in the Toung-gnyo Hills, and near Martaban schorl rock and crystals, schist, and hornblendic rock are found. Hot springs exist in 11 places in Amherst District, and are always found near the limestone outcrops. The largest and most important are at Attaran Rebú (Reboo), on the Attaran, about 2 miles inland from the old town of Attaran. Here there are 10 hot-water ponds, in some of which the temperature is 130° F.; carbonic acid is evolved in large quantities, and the ground around the springs is highly impregnated with iron. The Burmese use the waters in cases of fever and skin-disease. Dr. Morton found on analysis that the springs contain much calcareous matter; they deposit carbonate of lime.

History.—The history of Amherst District is for many centuries a monotonous chronicle of wars and incursions. Claimed by the Siamese on the east, and by the Peguans on the west, the country had no rest until the former were expelled and the latter conquered by the Burmese. The ancient capital, Martaban, was founded in 1269 A.D. by Narapadítsíthú, a Burmese King of Pagan, who erected a Buddhist Pagoda there, and planted a colony of 30 families to take charge of it. Aliengma was appointed governor. At this time the country east of the Salwín belonged to Siam. On Aliengma's refusal to appear at the Court of Narapadítsíthú's son and successor, Talapya was appointed in his place. But, aided by the Shans, the ex-governor soon returned, drove out and killed Talapya, and resumed office, probably as tributary to Siam. For many years the Burmese kingdom was harassed by the Chinese from the north, and its sovereigns were unable to exert any authority in the south. Magadú, a native trader of Martaban, who had risen in favour at the Siamese Court, was appointed governor of the capital during one of the king's absences. He eloped with the king's daughter, and, returning to Martaban, treacherously murdered Aliengma. In 1281 he was recognised by the King of Siam, and from this time is known in history as King Wariyú. Wariyú's ambition was not yet satisfied. North of Martaban lay a country called Kanpalaní (Kanpalanee), which he eventually conquered. Whilst the King of Kanpalaní was away on a hunting excursion, his capital was pillaged, and his daughter made captive. About this time the King of Martaban aided the King of Pegu, who had also effected his independence, in expelling the Chinese, who

had defeated the King of Pagan and were attacking Pegu. Quarrels soon arose between the two monarchs, which ended in Waríyú's annexing Pegu. This king was succeeded by his brother, who perished in a rebellion. In the reign of the next sovereign, Zaw-aw-bheng-hmain, Labong, Tavoy, and Tenasserim were added to the kingdom, which already extended nearly to Prome on the north and to Bassein on the west. From this time the history of Martaban merges in that of PEGU. Between 1563 and 1581 A.D. Cæsar Frederic, the Venetian, visited Martaban; he found there 'ninety Portugal merchants and other base men which had fallen at difference with the governor of the city.' The King of Pegu 'had gone with a million and four hundred thousand men to conquer the kingdom of Siam,' and in his absence the Portuguese caused a disturbance in the capital. From this time the country was the theatre of continual wars and rebellions. The kings of Siam succeeded in re-annexing the site of the modern Maulmain and the territory to the south, and in conquering the portion of the Province lying east of the Salwín. In the latter half of the 18th century, Aloungbhúra and his successors obtained possession of the country, and retained it till after the first Anglo-Burmese war, when the Burmese were forced to cede to the British the tract east of the Salwín (1826); the remaining portion was annexed after the second Burmese war by Lord Dalhousie, in 1853.

Antiquities.—Bhílú (Bheeloo) island alone contains 60 pagodas. Tradition fondly alleges that the Kalaw pagoda was erected for a relic of Gautama during the reign of the Bhuddist King Asoka. The most famous pagodas at Martaban are the Myathiendhan (1282 A.D.), attributed to King Waríyú; the Shwe Dagon, ascribed to 1288 A.D.; the Kyaik-kha-pan pagoda, built in 1199 A.D. by Aliengma. The Tha-htún (Tha-htoon) pagoda is the oldest and most celebrated of all. The Burmese chroniclers falsely assign it to the year 594 B.C. It is said to have been built in honour of a visit of Gautama Buddha, and as a receptacle for a hair of the holy man. The chief pagoda at Maulmain is the Kyaik-than-lan, built on the northern spur of the hill near Martaban. There are several small but ancient pagodas near Maulmain containing relics of Buddha. Tha-htún (Tha-htoon) and Martaban, once the capitals of independent kingdoms, are now in ruins, but still exhibit traces of their former importance.

Population. — Before 1826, Amherst was the scene of perpetual warfare between the kings of Siam and Pegu, and was ravaged in turn by their troops, and by the Burmese armies of Aloungbhúra and his successors. When the country east of the Salwín was annexed in 1826, it was found to be almost uninhabited. In February 1827, Moung Tsat, a rebel Talaing chief, known to Burmese history as the Syriam Rájá, settled, with 10,000 followers, in Maulmain and its neighbour-

hood. After a few years a further influx of 20,000 immigrants from Burmese territory took place. In 1829 the population of the country stretching from the Thoung-yeng to the Pakchan (which includes the present Districts of Tavoy and Mergui) was about 70,000 souls. In 1835 it had risen to 85,000, and in 1845 to 127,455. This rapid increase was due to immigration from Pegu native territory, and, on a small scale, from India to Maulmain, which rose from a fishing village into a flourishing town. In 1855 Amherst District comprised only the country east of the Salwín (Salween) between the Thoung-yeng river and Tavoy District, and had a population of 83,146. In 1860 this number had increased to 130,953, and in 1870 to 235,747. During this decade Tha-htún Subdivision was transferred from Shwe-gyeng District. In 1872, at the first regular Census, the District population was, exclusive of Maulmain (46,472), 239,940, including:—

Talaings, . . .	94,476	Natives of India—	
Karengs, . . .	53,751	Hindus, . . .	4,236
Toungthús, . . .	19,636	Muhammadans, . .	826
Arakanese, . . .	8,215	Chinese, . . .	1,848
Shans, . . .	5,891	Malays, . . .	72
Burmese, . . .	4,241		

In 1875-76 the population of the District had further risen to 275,432. In this year the percentage of males in the total population was 52·07 to 47·93 of females. Of Hindus 69·33 per cent., of Muhammadans 64·03, and of Buddhists (Talaings, Burmese, etc.) 51·66 per cent. were males. The disproportion between the sexes is chiefly owing to the large immigration of male labourers. During the Burmese occupation of the country, the coast tracts of Tenasserim were peopled chiefly by Talaings, called by themselves 'Mún'; and they now form the greater part of the population. It is not known whether this tribe came directly down the Irrawaddy (Irawadi) from Pegu, or whether they migrated *viâ* the Brahmaputra, and so through Arakan to their present settlements. Later, about 1000 B.C., Dravidians from Telingana established trading colonies in 'Ramáyana'—*i.e.*, the country between the mouths of the Salwín and Bassein rivers. These colonists soon merged in the wild race of the Mún, and their name, 'Talaing,' by which this mixed people is known to all but themselves, alone shows their connection with 'Telingana.' Their language is harsh and guttural, and essentially different from Burmese; and after the first Anglo-Burmese war, it was cruelly proscribed by the Burmese sovereign. In Pegu it has almost died out, but still prevails in Amherst District. The Karengs generally occupy the hilly country in the District, and both Sgaws and Pwos or Pgho are fully represented. The pure Burmese are few in number. The Toungthús are an isolated race; they are swarthy and sturdily built, and have a language, dress, and customs of their own. They have no written character, but their traditions

are preserved to them by professional story-tellers. The Arakanese and the Shans may be considered as permanent settlers, as are also some of the Hindus and Muhammadans, amongst whom are included Burmese women converted before marriage with Musalmáns. Such marriages are frequent. Many Hindus and Muhammadans, however, only come to the District to make a little money, and look forward to returning to India. On the banks of the Attaran there is a Muhammadan colony. The Hindus are clustered in the towns and villages near Maulmain. The number of towns and villages in Amherst is 759—of which 420 have less than 200 inhabitants, 257 from 200 to 500, 61 from 500 to 1000, 18 between 1000 and 2000, 1 from 2000 to 3000, 1 from 3000 to 5000, and 1 over 20,000. The chief towns are Maulmain, Amherst, and Martaban. MAULMAIN is situated at the points of junction of the Salwín, Gyaing, and Attaran rivers, in lat. 16° 38′ N. and in long. 97° 38′ E. It was made a cantonment in 1826 for the main body of the troops in Tenasserim by the Commander-in-Chief, Sir Archibald Campbell. He selected it as the best position to overawe the Burmese, who still retained Pegu, and had a force at Martaban on the opposite bank of the Salwín. Its natural fertility and the discovery of the valuable teak forests, together with the cruelties of the Burmese in Pegu, induced immigration, and Maulmain sprang into importance. In 1875-76 the population amounted to 57,719. AMHERST (Kyaik Khamí) is a small station on the sea-coast, in lat. 16° 15′ N. and in long. 97° 34′ E. On the cession of Tenasserim it was chosen to be the seat of the local Government, and called after Lord Amherst, the Governor-General, but in 1827 Maulmain became the Headquarters station. MARTABAN came under British rule in 1854, and was transferred from Shwe-gyeng District to Amherst in 1864-65. It once formed the capital of an independent State, but afterwards belonged at different periods to Burma, Pegu, and Siam, until its capture by the English.

Agriculture, etc.—The cultivated portions of the District are Tha-htún Subdivision (forming about five-sixteenths of the whole cultivated area), Bhílú (Bheeloo) island, the plains east of Maulmain, the tract between the Toung-gnyo Hills and the sea stretching from Maulmain to Amherst town, and the country around Re in the south. The plains between the Salwín and Hlaing-bhwai, and the Houng-tharaw and Attaran are almost entirely inundated during the rains, and sometimes are several feet under water. Rice is the chief produce; it is extensively grown along the banks of the Gyaing. In 1869-70 the total area under tillage was 318 square miles; in 1873-74, 401; and in 1875-76, 461 square miles. In the last-mentioned year 390 square miles were under rice, and the gross yield of unhusked rice was about 179,574 tons. Dhaní and betel palms are largely cultivated; to-

bacco and *sesamum* are also grown; cotton in small quantities only, and chiefly by the Karengs on the hillsides, as other crops at present are more profitable. In 1875-76 there were 1189 sugar-cane plantations. Some of the cane is exported to Rangoon. The number of *toungyas*, or jungle clearings, is small, the hillmen being few. The land is almost entirely in the hands of small proprietors holding it direct from the State, and cultivating it themselves, aided by the members of their families. Occasionally labourers are hired, who are paid in kind to the value of from 6 to 8 rupees (12s. to 16s.) a month, according as they live and board with their employers or not. There are no large landed proprietors in the District. The average size of a holding is from 10 to 15 acres, and the average rent from 2 to 3 rupees (4s. to 6s.) per acre.

AREA UNDER CULTIVATION IN AMHERST DISTRICT IN ACRES.

Year.	Rice.	Sugar.	Cotton	Vegetables.	Betel-nut.	Cocoa-nut.	Dhani.	Fruits.	All other kinds.	Total Acres.
1855-56	77,459	...	...	Unknown		...	...	...	13,329	90,788
1868-69	161,345	133	1313	7180	3430	110	3083	12,930	3,009	192,533
1869-70	170,400	948	569	7702	3375	1023	4262	12,470	3,262	204,011
1870-71	176,998	875	599	7660	3386	1062	4312	13,754	2,955	211,601
1871-72	187,353	834	1610	No returns.	3375	1062	4307	12,601	2,439	213,581
1872-73	197,082	993	1016		3472	1066	4644	12,585	2,520	223,378
1873-74	220,497	955	877		3468	1060	4585	12,731	2,249	246,422
1874-75	242,848	1107	778		3500	1060	4643	14,027	2,530	270,493

In 1875-76, 4813 square miles of cultivable land were still waiting for cultivators. The agricultural stock has rapidly increased. Between 1855-56 and 1874-75 the number of buffaloes rose from 36,501 to 77,886; cows, bulls, and bullocks, from 5297 to 39,254; carts, from 2356 to 6400; ploughs, from 1029 to 23,020; and boats, from 4320 to 6187. The most important natural product is teak, which, since the country came into our possession, has formed the staple article of local commerce. Indeed, the District owes its early prosperity to the timber trade, and the impetus which it gave to immigration. Most of the timber is of foreign growth, and is brought down the rivers from Siam and Zeng-mai for shipment at Maulmain. The mode of bringing it to market is as follows:—The selected trees are first girdled; three years later they are felled, marked, and dragged by elephants to the bed of the stream which taps the forests, and left there until the rains, when the waters rise. They then float down—in some cases untouched and unseen, and in others, as in the Thoungyeng, followed and guided by men and elephants—till they reach the *kyodan*, or rope station, where their further progress is arrested. Here parties of foresters are stationed, who recognise their own timber,

draw the logs to the bank, and form them into rafts. These are taken by raftsmen to the Government timber-station, where they must be entered in the forest revenue books, and the duty, if any, paid before they can be taken farther down the river to the ships awaiting them, or to the saw-pits at Maulmain. At the *kyodan* on the Salwín, where the river, narrowed to a third of its ordinary breadth, runs between two perpendicular cliffs, an immense cable, stretched across, intercepts the floating logs as they collect during the night. At dawn numbers of foresters are seen, each trying to get his own logs ashore and clear of the rest. Sometimes the weight of the timber snaps the cable, and the whole mass is carried swiftly down the river, either to be stranded by the current or lost by being drifted out to sea, or to be landed by practised men, who make this their profession and receive salvage at a fixed scale. The other natural products are gamboge and stick-lac; the *ka-gnyeng*, yielding a varnishing oil; and a drug having all the properties of camphor, extracted by distillation from a plant belonging to the Subdivision of *Verbenaceæ Eupatoriæ*. Communication is carried on chiefly by boats. Total length of water communication within the District, 500 miles. A metalled road runs southwards as far as Kwan-hla, a distance of 38 miles, and is in course of construction for 73 miles farther on, whence it will eventually be prolonged to Tavoy and Mergui. At Kwan-hla a branch road leads westward to Amherst, 16 miles distant; a road leads from Maulmain to the Gyaing; and a short metalled way, 4½ miles, connects Zemathway with Tha-htún (Tha-htoon). Another road is being made from Martaban northwards to Tha-htún, and thence to Shwe-gyeng. Total length of roads in the District, 58 miles. A telegraph line extends from Maulmain past Tha-htún to Shwe-gyeng (with a branch thence to Rangoon) and on to Toung-gnú (Toung-gnoo), and another line runs from Maulmain to Amherst.

Manufactures, etc.—Sugar is manufactured for home consumption and for export, chiefly in Tha-htún. The demand for rice and teak in the English and Indian markets, the discovery of valuable forests, the rapid increase of population, and the convenient position of Maulmain, gave a great stimulus to trade. The principal exports are timber and rice. The first shipment of teak to England was in 1839. It is now sent in large quantities to the United Kingdom and to India, to continental Europe, and in small quantities to the Straits. In 1873-74 the value of timber exported was £582,483. Rice was formerly sent chiefly to the Straits, but now large shipments are made to Europe and India. In 1876-77 its total export was 56,383 tons. In 1875-76, 12 steam cleaning mills were at work in the District. There is a small trade in hides and cotton. The principal imports are cotton and woollen piece-goods, twist, tea, sugar and sugar-candy, spirits, vege-

table oils, silk goods, and tobacco. In 1855-56 the value of imports was £358,302, of exports, £439,092—total, £797,394; in 1864-65 the value of imports was £693,021, of exports, £874,834—total, £1,567,855; in 1875-76 the imports were £598,738, exports, £1,184,436—total, £1,783,174.

Administration.—On the cession of the Tenasserim Provinces, they were considered so unproductive that at one time their surrender was seriously contemplated. The discovery of the teak forests, however, soon proved a source of wealth and prosperity. In 1855-56 the total revênue of Amherst District, exclusive of Tha-htún (Tha-htoon), derived from land, capitation, fisheries, customs, excise, etc., amounted to £44,936; in 1862-63, to £93,486; in 1872-73, to £137,737; and in 1875, to £168,741. The land revenue alone rose from £40,319 in 1872 to £45,313 in 1873. This increase was owing to the enlarged area of taxable land, caused partly by the improvement in the rice trade, and partly by cultivable land having been reclaimed in the Tha-htún and Zaya townships. For some years after the cession of Tenasserim, the land revenue was represented by a levy of 25 per cent. upon the crop, calculated at an average *ad valorem* rate dependent on the market price of grain. In 1834 this system was abolished, and payment by acreage substituted. Two rupees 8 annas (5s.) per acre were fixed as the maximum rent of the best lands. In addition to the imperial revenue, a local revenue is raised from town and District funds, and the cess levied on the land revenue and fisheries. In 1872 the local rates amounted to £2837; in 1875-76, to £5445. For administrative purposes the District is divided into 11 townships—viz., Tha-htún (Tha-htoon), Hpagat, and Martaban in Tha-htún Subdivision; Bhflúgywon (Bheeloogywon), Thanlweng Hlaing-bhwai, Gyaing Than-lweng, Gyaing Attaran, Zaya, Wákharú (Wakharoo), Re Lamaing, Houngtharaw. These are subdivided into revenue circles. Judicial mechanism—a Judge at Maulmain, with civil and criminal jurisdiction; and 18 presiding officers in the District, of whom 14 have civil, criminal, and revenue powers. In 1876 the total police force numbered 617. Crimes of violence are chiefly committed by the Karengs, Toung-thús, and Shans, but no organized gang has been known to exist during the last few years. The jail at Maulmain is one of the central prisons of British Burma. In 1875 the total number of prisoners was 1946—criminal, 1662, and civil, 284. They are employed in gardening, wicker and coir work, tailoring, cotton-spinning, stone-breaking, etc. The net value of their labour was, in 1875, £2651; expenditure of the jail, £5237. Including Maulmain town, the District has 195 schools—2 Government and 193 private, of which 11 are missionary and a considerable number monastic. The last have been lately brought under Government supervision, as a means of spread-

ing sound primary instruction among the people. In 1873, 89 of these schools were visited with the consent of the Buddhist Hpúngyís, or teachers, and the pupils examined. In Maulmain 50 Hpúngyís refused to admit the examiner. Two newspapers are published in the District. The Government High School, established in Maulmain in 1835, has 100 pupils. St. Patrick's School was started in 1842 by the Roman Catholic Mission; the Moung-gan Anglo-Vernacular School (1871) is now incorporated with it. In Maulmain the Morton Lane and St. Joseph's Schools, and the Church of England Orphanage, are for girls only. In 1843 the American Baptist Mission set up a normal school in Maulmain for Karengs, in which Burmese is taught. Speaking generally, the education of Burmese women has hitherto been neglected, but they are independent, active, and shrewd. The petty trade is almost exclusively in their hands. Maulmain is the only municipal town in Amherst District. In 1875-76 the revenue amounted to £10,518, and the expenditure to £9399.

Climate, etc.—Fevers and rheumatism are the most prevalent diseases. The average annual rainfall for the years 1873-74-75, at Maulmain, was 215·16 inches. Amherst District has suffered terribly from cattle-disease, which is imported almost annually from the Shan States. In 1876, between January 1st and August 30th, 12,562 cattle died.

Amherst.—Town in Amherst District, on the Wakharú (Wakharoo) river, lat. 16° 4′ 40″ N., long. 97° 35′ 30″ E. It is situated on the sea-coast about 30 miles south of Maulmain by river and 54 by road, on an elevation, airy and open to the sea breeze. On account of its accessible position, on a river which is navigable some distance and possesses a good harbour at its mouth, Amherst was, in 1826, made the capital of the Province. It was called after Lord Amherst, the Governor-General; its native name is Kyaik Khámí. In 1827 the headquarters were transferred to Maulmain. As a sanitarium Amherst is strongly recommended; on the inland side, the town is sheltered by a bold range of wooded hills, and it is a favourite summer retreat of the people of Maulmain. For some years it was garrisoned by a small detachment, afterwards replaced by a police guard. Amherst is now important only as a pilot station with a telegraph office.

Amindivi Islands.—*See* LACCADIVES.

Amingad.—Town in Kaládgi District, Bombay; 9 miles west of Hungund, and 32 miles south-east of Kaládgi. Lat. 16° 3′ 30″ N., long. 76° E.; pop. (1872), 7314. The town has a post office and a large cattle market—the sale of cattle is said to reach the yearly value of £2500. It is also a great mart for cocoa-nuts and rice—articles of trade that reach Amingad westwards from the sea-coast.

Amírganj.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Chief trade, rice, jute, and tobacco.

Amjhera.—Petty State in Malwa, Central India, lying between lat. 22° 16′ and 22° 47′ N., and between long. 74° 40′ and 75° 15′ E.; area, 584 square miles; extent from north-east to south-west, 42 miles, and from south-east to north-west, 33 miles. Opium is cultivated to a considerable extent; the other crops are cotton, maize, sugar-cane, etc.

Ammapetai.—Town in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 9′ 15″ N., long. 78° 41′ E.; pop. 7035; houses, 1336. A suburb of Salem.

Ammayanáyakanúr.—Large estate in the Dindigul country, Madura District, Madras. The battle fought here in 1741 decided the fate of Dindigul, which thus fell into the hands of Chanda Sahíb; and the estate also figured somewhat conspicuously in the incursion of Haidar Ali (1757). It was one of the five *paleiyams* which the invader failed to resume, but it was afterwards sequestrated by Tippu Sahíb. On the British occupation it was restored to its original status as a tributary *paleiyam*, and assessed at £745 per annum. In 1862 an increase to £1508 was recommended. Government, however, decided that the original assessment should be considered permanent.

Ammenaikam.—Village in Madura District, Madras. The station for the Pulni Hills on the line of railway from Negapatam to Tuticorin. Distant 40 miles from Kudaikanal.

Amner.—Town in north of Amráoti District, Berar, at junction of the Jám and Wardha rivers; pop. (1867), 1800, chiefly Muhammadan. Celebrated for battle between the Jágírdár and Nizám, 7000 Muhammadan tombs being still pointed out; also for old temple to Mahádeo on the river bank, with miracle-pool below. Municipal income, £11.

Amner (or *Jilpi-Amner*).—Small fort in north of Ellichpur District, Berar. Lat. 21° 31′ 45″ N., long. 76° 49′ 30″ E. Stands in a commanding position at the apex of the triangle formed by the junction of Garga and Táptí rivers, the only approach being from the north-west. The fort covers about an acre, is quadrangular in shape, built of brick, and has four flanking bastions. A mosque and minarets in its west angle are conspicuous and picturesque objects. Dismantled, and its guns removed, in 1858.

Amod.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Broach District, Bombay; about a mile south of the Dhádhar river. Lat. 21° 59′ 30″ N., long. 72° 56′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 6125. The residence of a *thákur*, or large landholder, who owns about 21,214 acres of land, with a yearly income of £8000. Workers in iron make good edged tools, such as knives and razors. Post office.

Amosi.—Town, Lucknow District, Oudh; about 8 miles from Lucknow city, and 4 from Bijnaur. The headquarters of a clan of Chauhán Rájputs, who captured it and a surrounding tract of country from the Bhars about the middle of the 15th century. Pop. about 2350, nearly all of whom are Hindus, many of them proprietary cultivators of the

soil. Surrounded on all sides by wide *usar* (barren) plains. Government school.

Ampta.—A village on the Dámodar river, in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 34′ 30″ N., long. 88° 3′ 12″ E.; pop. (1869), 3460, chiefly boatmen. Good mats are made here. Distance from Calcutta, 22 miles west.

Amráoti.—A British District of Berar, under the Resident at Hyderabad, in lat. 20° 25′ to 21° 36′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 15′ 30″ to 78° 29′ 30″ E. Bounded on the north by Ellichpur District, on the east by the river Wardha, on the south by Básim and Wún Districts, and on the west by Akola and Ellichpur Districts. Area, 2767 square miles; population according to survey and estimates (1877), 546,448. The town of Amráoti is the administrative Headquarters of the District and of the Commissionership of East Berar, and ranks next to Khámgaon, among the cotton marts of Berar.

Physical Aspects.—Amráoti District is a plain about 800 feet above sea level; parts of it are considerably higher, and the general flatness is broken by a chain of barren rocky hills between Amráoti and Chándur. Soil extremely fertile, principally a black loam, except in the higher parts of the District, where it is shallow and poor. The river Púrna flows westward through the District; the remaining streams form deep channels in the rainy season, run eastward, and drain into the Wardha, which is not navigable in the Amráoti District. Game of the larger sorts still abounds in the wooded parts of the District. Forest reserves, 74 square miles.

History.—Tradition relates that a great company of Warharis, who had come to Amráoti to witness the votive ceremonies of Rukmini before her marriage, settled there, and gave their name to the country now called Berar, which was held by Rájput princes for some centuries. Amráoti, with the rest of Berar, fell to Alá-ud-dín, nephew and son-in-law to the Delhi Emperor Feroz Ghilzai, in 1294. The rise and fall of the Báhmani dynasty (1347-1526), the ninety years of Berar independence under the Imad Sháhi princes, its eventual cession to Akbar (1596), belong to the history of the Province rather than to the account of Amráoti District. After the death of Aurangzeb, Chin Khilich Khán, viceroy of the Deccan, under the title of Nizám ul Mulk, obtained in 1724, as the fruit of three victories, a divided dominion with the Marhattás. From this date Berar has been always nominally subject to the Hyderabad dynasty. By the partition treaty of 1804 the whole of Berar was made over to the Nizám, and Amráoti, as a part of it, is included in the Districts assigned to the British Government by the Nizám under the treaties of 1853 and 1861. The Resident at Hyderabad, acting directly under the orders of the Supreme Government of India, is the head of the Administration.

Population.—The Census of 1867 showed a population of 407,276, on an area of 2566 square miles. The survey now completed returns (1877) a population of 546,448, on an area of 2767 square miles, being 197 per square mile. Adult males, 186,803; adult females, 175,672; children below 12—males, 97,989, females, 85,984: total males, 284,792; total females, 261,656. The excess of births over deaths is stated to be 3·6 per cent. Hindus, 493,740; Muhammadans, 38,625, being about 1 in 14 of the population; aboriginal tribes, 10,188; Buddhists and Jains, 3600; agriculturists, 431,680; non-agriculturists, 114,768. Bráhmans in 1867 were 11,880; Rájputs, 10,500; mendicants, chiefly religious, formed 10 per cent. of the population. The aborigines are stamped by their physical appearance and customs as belonging to an earlier type than the mass of inhabitants. Each Marhattá village, according to custom, has a *patél* and a *pátwári* at its head; the *patéls* are usually Kunbís, but a few are Bráhmans. The *pola*, a great festival, is annually celebrated in the villages in honour of the plough cattle. There are seven principal fairs, at which many curious local customs are observed. The principal towns are—Amráoti, pop. 25,517; Káranja, 11,750; Badnera, 6876; Kholapur, 6169; Talegaon, 4198; Murtizápur, 3897; Anjangaon-Bári, 3123. Total of population in towns above 3000, 59,931. The figures for Amráoti refer to 1876, those for the other towns to 1867.

Agriculture.—The staple crop is cotton, of which two varieties are said to be indigenous to Berar—(1) *Banni*, sown towards the end of June, ripens in November; (2) *Jari*, sown in the deep black soil of the Púrna valley, a fortnight later than *banni*, and seldom ready before the 15th December. Two Government farms for raising pedigree seed have been established. Several varieties of pulse are grown. Among vegetables the potato is indifferent, but the yam is excellent; many cucurbitaceous and wild plants are raised or gathered. Irrigation is little resorted to, although storage tanks would be of great service in the hot season. The cultivated area in 1876-77 was 1,365,302 acres. The most important crops were—*joár* (great millet), 480,469 acres; cotton, 481,629; wheat, 129,877; linseed, 111,214; tobacco, 8733; opium, 1124. *Joár* is the staple food of the people, and its stalk (*karbi*) is the staple fodder for cattle. Rent-rates vary from 2s. per acre for cotton land to 5s. 3d. for opium land.

Land Tenures.—The native collectors and revenue-farmers admitted no rights except the prescriptive claims of resident cultivators to hold at such rates as might be fixed, together with a few quasi-proprietary privileges in wells and orchard lands. Under British rule the Bombay system of survey and settlement has been adopted, by which, subject to certain restrictions, the occupant is absolute proprietor of his holdings. The assessment is fixed for 30 years, and can then be enhanced only on

good reason being shown. Under this system the proprietors often work co-operatively. The few large landowners cultivate most of their lands by hired labour, themselves supplying seed and plough cattle. The rate of wages in the centre of the valley, along the line of railway, is 16s. a month; in tracts farther removed, it is from 50s. to 80s. yearly, sometimes paid entirely in grain, with food and clothing. Revenue free tenures are derived from village offices, or service, personal grants, religious and charitable endowments.

Natural Calamities.—In the great famine of 1839 many villages moved *en masse* towards Agra, streaming through Saugor cantonments like files of ants, scrambling for every scrap of food and leaving a long line of corpses behind them. Hailstorms often cause great destruction to the crops.

Manufactures.—None except coarse cotton cloth, and a few wooden articles for domestic use.

Trade.—Cotton, for which Amráoti has long been famous, was anciently carried on pack-bullocks to Mirzapur on the Ganges, 500 miles distant. The Pársí merchants claim to have been the first to send the Amráoti fibre to Bombay in 1825-26. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway has immensely developed the trade, and there are now eight cotton presses at Amráoti town. This city also carries on a large import trade in spices, salt, English piece-goods, and fine cotton stuffs from Nágpur, sugar, molasses, turbans from Delhi, and gold embroidery from Benares. The internal traffic of the District is chiefly conducted by weekly markets, and at seven principal marts,—viz. Kondanpur (a fair), Bhiltek, Amráoti town, Morsi, Chandur, Murtizápur, Badnera.

Roads and Railways.—There were in 1876-77—made roads, 522 miles; railways, 69 miles Great India Peninsula, with stations at short intervals, and 5½ miles of State Railway from Badnera Junction (Great India Peninsula) to Amráoti. The telegraphic offices were worked at a profit. The branch of the Central (Berar) Book Depôt sells works in English, Marhatti, Sanskrit, Persian, and Urdú; those in Marhatti being the most numerous. The District has one newspaper, the *Prumod Sindhú.*

Administration.—The total area professionally surveyed is 1,732,855 acres, of which 1,365,302 are cultivated; cultivable, 240,491; uncultivable waste, 111,886; grazing land, 15,176 acres. The assessment averages 2s. 3d. per acre on actual cultivation; on cultivable land, 1s. 9½d.; on total assessed area, 2s. 0¾d. The number of villages on the roll is 1372. Land revenue (1877), £153,978; gross revenue, £198,195. Land now sells as high as 19 years' purchase on the assessment, but the average rate hitherto can scarcely be placed above 14 years' assessment. The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, assistants, and *tahsíldárs* or Subdivisional collectors.

Heinous crimes have greatly decreased under British rule; convictions for petty offences have increased. One central jail. In 1876, daily average of prisoners, 419; yearly cost per head, £5, 3s.; death-rate, per cent., 1·1. The Muhammadans, less than one-fourteenth of the District population, supply more than a fifth of the prisoners, the remainder being chiefly low-caste Hindus or aborigines. Schools aided and inspected by Government were 144 in 1877, with 5497 scholars. Vernacular of the District, Marhatti and Urdú. The only municipality is AMRAOTI town, constituted under Act IV. of 1873.

Meteorological Aspects, etc. — Hot weather begins in March, but without the scorching westerly winds of Upper India, and lasts till the rains set in about the middle of June. These continue for about three months, and the air is moist and cool. September and October are hot and steamy, and the most unhealthy months. The cold season lasts from November to end of February, but the sun is even then powerful in the middle of the day. Frost very rarely occurs. Temperature in May registers in shade 114° Fahr.; in December the minimum reading is about 51° Fahr. Rainfall in 1876-77 at Amráoti was 29¼ inches, of which 29·20 fell from June to September. The principal diseases, cholera, malarious fevers, bowel complaints, and skin affections. District ratio of deaths per thousand, 34·5. Snake-bites and wild beasts killed 59 persons. Five charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 262 in-patients and 22,658 out-patients, at an expenditure of £984, contributed by Government, local funds, and subscriptions. In 1876, 17,161 persons were vaccinated by the staff of the Vaccination Department.

Amráoti.—Municipal town in Berar; Headquarters of District of same name. Lat. 20° 55′ 45″ N., long. 77° 47′ 30″ E.; population, according to Census of 1867, 23,410; according to Commissioners' Report of 1876-77, 25,517. A branch (State) railway of 6 miles joins the town with the Great Indian Peninsula line at Badnera, which is 411 miles from Bombay, 108 from Nágpur, and 1332 miles from Calcutta, by rail. Height above sea level, 1134 feet. A strong stone wall of from 20 to 26 feet high, circuit 2¼ miles, surrounds the town, having five gates and four wickets (*khirki*). The wall was begun in A.D. 1807 by the Nizám's Government, to protect the wealthy traders from the Pindáris. The *Khunari* (bloody) wicket is said to be so called from 700 persons having fallen in a fight close to it in 1818. The town is divided into two parts—the Kasba and the Pet. In the middle of the last century a large number of Akola people, who had been driven away by the tyranny of the *talúkdárs*, emigrated to Amráoti; and a new accession was derived from the same cause forty years ago. Most of the wells are brackish. The most remarkable native buildings are the Temple of Bháwaní, also called the Amba Temple, said to have been

built a thousand years ago (and which has supplied a doubtful derivation for the name of Amráoti); together with seven other temples, built about a hundred years ago. Amráoti is celebrated for its cotton trade, and gives its name to the class of fibre of which it is the *entrepôt*. Until the Great Indian Peninsula Railway diverted the business to Bombay, the Amráoti cotton was chiefly sent to Mirzapur, on the Ganges, on pack-bullocks. In 1842, a single merchant is said to have despatched 100,000 bullock loads by this route to Calcutta. Amráoti now ranks next to Khámgaon as a cotton mart. It is also an emporium for piece-goods, spices, metals, and other articles imported from the west coast. In 1804, General Wellesley encamped here after the capture of Gawilgarh. It had then no commercial importance. In 1848, during the Nizám's rule, the price of *joár* (great millet), the staple food of the people, rose 400 per cent.,—from 10s. to £2 per candy,—owing to the want of rain; and the populace murdered Dhanráj Sahú, a wealthy trader, who had bought up large quantities of rice. Principal public buildings—Court houses, Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner's offices, jail, lines for police and one company of native infantry, hospital, dispensaries, church with cemetery, rest-houses for Native and European travellers. Population within municipal limits in 1877, 24,088; municipal taxation, £2907, or 2s. 5d. per head. Conservancy good; population increasing. Amráoti has one newspaper, the *Prumod Sindhú*. In 1877 there were 13 cotton 'mills or large manufactories' in Amráoti and the neighbourhood; 1640 'private looms or small works,' employing in all 5788 cotton-workers, of whom 11 were European superintendents; also, 700 wool-looms, 36 silk, and 798 looms for 'other fibres,' employing 12,000 workmen; 65,608 passengers by State Railway of 6 miles from Amráoti to Badnera; net profits of railway, £2021.

Amrápur.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 1¾ square miles; estimated revenue (1875), £32, 10s. There are four chiefs, who pay a tribute of £20 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief village lies in lat. 21° 36′, long. 71° 6′.

Amrávati.—River in the Coimbatore and Trichinopoly Districts, Madras Presidency. It has its source in the confluence of several jungle streams that run from the north-eastern spur of the Anamalai range into the Anjenád valley, whence it debouches into the Coimbatore District at the village of Kallapur, and, after flowing through the *táluks* of Udamalpétai, Darápur, and Karúr, falls into the Cauvery river at the village of Tirumkudal, on the Trichinopoly boundary. In its course of 122 miles, the Amrávati is crossed by 16 *anicuts* and 6 temporary dams, which drain off for the fields so much water that in ordinary seasons the river is nearly exhausted before it joins the Cauvery (lat. 10° 58′ N., and long. 78° 13′ 45″ E.). The Government revenue in 1875-76

from the 23,540 acres of wet or rice lands irrigated by this river amounted to £7732, being at the rate, therefore, of 6s. 7d. per acre. Karúr is the most important town on its banks. Navigation is possible only for the smallest description of boats.

Amrávati (*Amara Ishwara*, *Dharamíkotta*, sometimes called *Dipal Dinna*).—Town in the Satnapalli *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 34′ 45″ N., long. 80° 24′ 21″ E.; pop. (1871), 2155; houses, 524. Situated on the south bank of the Kistna, 20 miles north-west of Guntoor, and close to the site of the ancient Dharamkotta. Of great interest for the antiquarian, as one of the chief centres of the Buddhist kingdom of Vengi, and for its *tope*. The *tope* was first examined in 1797, when drawings were made; and subsequently, portions of the sculptures from the processional circle and *daghoba* were sent by Sir W. Elliott to England. Amrávati has been identified with Hiouen Thsang's To-ṇa-kie-tse-kia, and with the Rahmi of Arab geographers. Subsequent to the disappearance of Buddhism from this region, the town became a centre of the Sivaite faith. When Hiouen Thsang visited Amrávati in 639 A.D., it had already been deserted for a century, but he speaks in glowing terms of its magnificence and beauty. No vestige of the central *daghoba* now remains *in situ*, but Mr. Fergusson has ascertained its dimensions and general appearance by piecing together the fragments in the India Museum, London. Very careful and artistic representations of the *tope*, with its *daghoba* and interesting rail, pillars, and sculptures, will be found in Mr. Fergusson's *Tree and Serpent Worship*, and in his *History of Indian Architecture* (ed. 1876). Its elaborate carvings illustrate the life of Buddha, and supply valuable materials for the study of tree and serpent worship in India.

Amrávati, or Chatia, Hill.—Close to the village of Chatiá, in Cuttack District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 37′ N., long. 86° 5′ E. At the eastern base of the hill are the remains of an old fort, with an extensive rampart made of laterite, 4 feet deep, and said to have been 2 miles square. On a platform within the rampart are the remains of the fort; and another platform contains two images of the goddess Indrání, cut out of slate-stone, and remarkable for their elegance and beauty.

Amreli.—Town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay, situate within the limits of Baroda territory; 139 miles south-west of Baroda, and 132 miles south-west of Ahmedabad. Lat. 21° 36′ N., long. 71° 15′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 15,998.

Amri.—Government village in Sehwan Deputy-Collectorate, Kurrachee District, Sind. Lat. 26° 10′ 30″ N., long. 68° 3′ 30″ E.; pop. 867, mainly agricultural, including 757 Muhammadans, 107 Hindus. Staging bungalow.

Amritá Bazar or Magurá.—A village in Jessor District, Bengal; founded by a family of landholders in the District, and named after

their mother, Amrita. Lat. 23° 9′ N., long. 89° 6′ E. A Bengálí weekly newspaper, the *Amritá Bázár Patrika*, is published here. A theistic congregation was formed at Amritá Bázár in 1859, and consisted, in 1870, of 15 members. There is a separate Samáj for women.

Amritsar.—A Division under a Commissioner in the Punjab, lying between 31° 10′ and 33° 50′ 30″ N. lat., and between 74° 14′ 45″ and 75° 44′ 30″ E. long., and including the three Districts of AMRITSAR, GURDASPUR, and SIALKOT, each of which see separately. Area of Amritsar Division, 5335 square miles; pop. (1868), 2,743,880, comprising 1,401,290 Muhammadans, 659,905 Hindus, 352,885 Síkhs, 2454 Christians, and 327,346 others.

Amritsar.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 31° 10′ and 32° 13′ N. lat., and between 74° 24′ and 75° 27′ E. long.; area, in 1868, 1555 square miles; population, in 1868, 832,750. Amritsar is bounded on the north-west by the river Ravi, on the north-east by the District of Gurdáspur, on the south-east by the river Beas, and on the south-west by the District of Lahore. The administrative Headquarters are at the town of AMRITSAR.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Amritsar is an oblong strip of country extending from side to side of the Bári Doáb, or alluvial tract between the Beas and the Ravi. Though apparently a level plain, it has in reality a gentle slope from east to west, as indicated by the course of its boundary rivers. The right bank of the Beas is high and abrupt, crowned with a series of bluffs and sandhills, which occasionally attain an elevation of 60 feet above the stream at their base. From this point the level gradually falls away towards the channel of the Ravi, whose eastern bank does not exceed a few feet in height. In the neighbourhood of the Ravi, water may be found at less than 20 feet below the surface, whereas in the higher ground to the eastward it can rarely be reached at a depth of 50 feet. On either river a belt of *khádir*, or low-lying silt, fringes the margin of the modern bed. Between these great boundary streams, several lines of drainage enter Amritsar from Gurdáspur, and after heavy rains bring down a considerable volume of water, collected from the high grounds of that District. Of these the most important is the Kirran. The soil of Amritsar consists mainly of alluvial clay and loam, usually good and cultivable, though interspersed with patches of barren sand, or tracts of the deleterious saline efflorescence known as *kalar*. The District includes several strips of waste land, more or less covered with inferior timber-trees and coarse grass, some of which are under the charge of the Forest Department, while others are preserved for the sake of fodder alone. The characteristic trees indigenous to Amritsar are the *phuláhi* (Acacia modesta), *farásh* (Tamarix orientalis), *dhák* (Butea frondosa), and *jhánd* (Prosopis

spicigera). The last-named species is a gnarled and knotted bush, highly valued for fuel. Many other fruit-bearing or forest trees have been successfully introduced of late years. The District has no mineral produce except *kankar*, or nodulated limestone, deposited in layers a few feet below the surface, and largely used for road-metalling and the manufacture of lime. Salt was formerly obtained from the saline earth of the *kalar* plains by evaporation, but this industry is now practically extinct, owing to the superior supply obtained from the mines of JHELUM DISTRICT. A good bag of game, including black buck and other deer, may be made in many parts of the District.

History.—Amritsar contains no noteworthy relics of an early date, and the interest of its local annals begins with the rise of the Síkh power. The *guru* or high priest, Angad, successor to Nának, founder of their sect, inhabited the village of Khadúr, near the Beas, in the south of this District, where he died in 1552. Amar Dás, third *guru*, also lived in the same neighbourhood, and was succeeded on his death, in 1574, by his son-in-law Rám Dás, who became the fourth spiritual leader of the rising sect. Rám Dás laid the foundations of the future city of Armitsar upon a site granted by the Emperor Akbar. He also excavated the holy tank from which the town derives its name of *Amrita Saras*, or Pool of Immortality; and in its midst, on a small island, he began to erect a temple, the future centre of Síkh devotion. Arjan, the fifth *guru*, son and successor of Rám Dás, completed the sacred building, and lived to see the growth of a flourishing town around the holy site. In spite of persecution, the sect rapidly increased in numbers and importance; but Arjan died a prisoner at Lahore in 1606. Under his son, Har Govind, the Síkhs first offered resistance to the imperial power. The *guru* defeated a force sent against him; but was ultimately obliged to leave the Punjab, and died an exile in 1644–5. Guru Govind, the tenth spiritual chief in succession to Nának, organised the Síkhs into a religious-military commonwealth; in which all men were equal, and all soldiers. In 1708, Banda, the chosen friend and disciple of Govind, the last of the *gurus*, returned to Amritsar, and preached a religious war against the Muhammadans. Henceforth the character of the Síkh resistance entirely changed. Amritsar was the centre of a constant struggle, waged with varying fortune by the Síkhs, at first against the imperial governors of Lahore, and afterwards against Ahmad Sháh Duráni. Time after time the Musalmáns succeeded in capturing their capital; but after each defeat the enthusiasm of the young faith rose again with unabated vigour. The last great disaster of the Síkhs was in 1762, when Ahmad Sháh routed their forces completely, and pursued them across the Sutlej (Satlej). On his homeward march he destroyed the town of Amritsar, blew up the temple with gunpowder, filled in the sacred tank with mud, and defiled the holy place by the slaughter

of cows. But, true to their faith, the Síkhs rose once more as their conqueror withdrew, and this time initiated a final struggle, which resulted in the secure establishment of their independence. The desecrated shrine was restored, and Amritsar became for a while the capital of the Province. Each of the Síkh Confederacies had its own quarters in the city. In the division of their territory the greater part of Amritsar District fell to the chiefs of the Bhangi Confederacy. Gradually, however, Ranjít Sinh, who obtained possession of Lahore in 1799, brought the whole surrounding country under his own sway. The Bhangi chieftains succumbed in 1802, and before long the whole District was included in the dominions of the Lahore prince. With the remainder of the Punjab, it came under British rule after the second Síkh war, in 1849. As originally formed, the Amritsar District included the Subdivision of Nárowál, transferred to Siálkot in 1867; and other redistributions of territory have also taken place from time to time. On the outbreak of the Mutiny in May 1857, great anxiety was felt for the safety of the Govindgarh fortress, just outside the walls of Amritsar. It was garrisoned mainly by native troops of suspected regiments, and a few artillerymen were the only Europeans on the spot. The city, on the other hand, remained quiet, and the peasantry evinced a loyal readiness to aid the local authorities in case of need. The danger was at length averted by the rapid march of a company of British infantry from Meean Meer (Mián Mír).

Population.— The Census of 1855 returned the total number of inhabitants in the tract now composing the Amritsar District at 720,374. The enumeration of 1868 showed a rise to the number of 832,750, being an increase of 112,376 persons. It was effected over an area of 1555 square miles, and gave the following results:— Total population, 832,750; number of villages, 1078; number of houses, 197,528. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 535; villages per square mile, 0·70; persons per village, 773; houses per square mile, 127; persons per house, 4·21. Classified according to sex, there were — males, 465,074; females, 367,676; proportion of males, 55·85 per cent. Classified according to age, there were — under 12 years, males, 161,157; females, 131,608; total, 292,765, or 35·15 per cent.: above 12 years, males, 303,917; females, 236,068; total, 539,985, or 64·85 per cent. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, the Hindus numbered 138,027; Muhammadans, 377,135; Síkhs, 223,219; and others, 94,369. The agricultural population is returned at 269,765 persons. The principal tribes of the District include 201,323 Játs, 33,933 Kashmíris, 30,496 Bráhmans, 30,339 Kshattriyas, 18,915 Rájputs, and 18,824 Aroras. The Játs constitute little less than 75 per cent. of the agricultural population; about one quarter of their number are

Muhammadans, and the remainder Síkhs. The latter class of Játs in this and the neighbouring Districts formed the flower of the armies which contested the fields of Moodkee (Mudki), Ferozshah, and Sobraon with the British troops, and ventured again to face them in a second campaign. They are a peasantry of which any country in the world might well be proud, admirable as soldiers in time of war, and equally admirable in peace for their skill and perseverance as agriculturists. The Kashmíris are exclusively Muhammadans, and reside in the city of Amritsar, where they carry on their manufacture of the famous Amritsar shawls. Slight in person and uncleanly in their habits, they bear a bad reputation for trickery and litigiousness. Large numbers of the Bráhmans are engaged in agriculture, while others find employment as domestic servants. The Kshattriyas and Aroras form the trading classes of the towns and villages. Rájputs are found as agriculturists only in the low-lying lands bordering upon the Ravi and the Beas; most of them follow miscellaneous occupations in the city of Amritsar. The District contains six municipal towns—namely, AMRITSAR (136,609), JANDIALAH (6819), MAJITHA (6388), RAMDAS (5833), TARN TARAN (2709), and VAIROWAL (5222). Amritsar, the administrative headquarters of the District, is second in size to Delhi alone amongst the cities of the Province, and inferior to none in political importance. It is the sacred city of the Síkhs, and the centre of their religious aspirations. No other town in the District can lay claim to more than local importance.

Agriculture.—Only a small proportion of the soil is unfit for tillage, and a considerable area receives irrigation from the Bári Doáb Canal, which draws its supplies from the Ravi in Gurdáspur District. Amritsar is traversed both by the main canal and by a branch which passes westwards towards Lahore. In a great part of the District wells are also in use for irrigation, either independently or as supplementary to the canals. Cultivation has been largely extended of late years under the security of British rule. In 1851 there were 149,483 acres of irrigated land, and a total of 596,748 acres under cultivation; in 1864 the irrigated area had risen to 179,914 acres, and the total extent of cultivation to 633,080 acres. Returns compiled in 1873-74 show the following results:—Area irrigated by canals, 114,963 acres; irrigated by private works, 156,665 acres; unirrigated, 495,092; total cultivated area, 766,720. A large proportion of the tillage is thus protected against drought by artificial means. The staple products of the *rabí*, or spring harvest, are wheat, barley, and gram. Mustard, flax, lentils, and safflower are also cultivated, together with small quantities of poppy and tobacco. For the *kharíf*, or autumn harvest, rice, Indian corn, *joár*, pulses, cotton, and sugar-cane are the all-important crops. The grain is principally grown for home consumption,

while sugar and cotton form the staples of the export trade. In the year 1875-76 the acreage of the principal crop was returned as follows:—Wheat, 225,818 acres; barley, 36,795 acres; gram, 87,157 acres; tobacco, 3623 acres; mustard, 31,561 acres; rice, 20,013 acres; Indian corn, 38,952 acres; *joár*, 54,033 acres; pulses, 12,811 acres; cotton, 22,017 acres; sugar-cane, 31,207 acres. Wheat and barley for the spring harvest are ordinarily sown in September or October, and reaped in March or April. For gram, the seasons both of sowing and reaping are a little earlier. The preparation for the autumn harvest is begun with the commencement of the rainy season, and sowing ought to be completed before the middle of August. The soil is the property of village communities, held subject to the payment of a land tax to the State. Out of 1077 villages, in 1873-74, only 59 retain the whole of their land in common; amongst the remainder, the division of land in accordance with the shares of the coparceners has been carried out with greater or less completeness. Villages in which no undivided common land remains, are exceptional. The whole village is in any case responsible to the Government for the land tax assessed upon it. The number of sharers is returned at 87,804, and the gross area at 1,214,716 acres; allowing for each proprietor, including land let to tenants, an average holding of 13·8 acres. The tenants of the District are thus classified: Occupancy tenants, 15,411; average holding, 5 acres: tenants holding conditionally, 1186; average holding, 3 acres: tenants-at-will, 32,447; average holding, 4 acres. Most of the Occupancy tenants pay rents in the form of a percentage upon the land tax falling to their holdings. With this exception rent is taken almost universally in kind. Cash wages in 1875-76 ruled as follows:—Unskilled labourers, from 3¾d. to 4½d. per diem; skilled labourers, from 9d. to 1s. 0¾d. per diem. In the same year the following were the prices current of food-stuffs:—Wheat, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.; barley, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7d. per cwt.; grain, 29½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9½d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 25½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 5d. per cwt.; *joár*, 31½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6½d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The north and west of the District are comparatively secure from drought, through the abundant facilities for irrigation which exist in that tract; but in the south-eastern *parganás*, which are higher and more sandy, there must always be risk from the abnormally dry seasons. In 1861, and again in 1869, the failure of the rains rendered necessary the opening of relief works. On both occasions the high price of food caused great distress in the city of Amritsar, to which the indigent peasantry from the neighbouring Districts were attracted in thousands by its reputed wealth. The District as a whole did not suffer materially from the scarcity, and the peasants of the irrigated portions secured large profits from their crops. On January

the 1st, 1870, wheat was sold at 9½ *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 9½d. per cwt.; gram, at 13¾ *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 2d. per cwt.; and Indian corn, at 17¾ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 4d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—As a commercial centre, Amritsar takes precedence of every town in the Punjab. Its imports are estimated at an average value of £2,000,000, and its exports at £1,500,000. Bokhára, Kábul, and Kashmir to the north or west, and Rájputána on the south, supply its markets with their produce, and largely depend upon it for the purchase of their Indian and European wares. It is also the great emporium for the home traffic of the Punjab, gathering local products of every kind for exportation, and supplying half the merchants of the Province with English piece-goods or other imports from Calcutta and Bombay. The principal items of the Indian trade are grain, sugar, oil-seeds, salt, tobacco, tea, cotton, silk, wool, metals, and leather. The *spécialité* of the city is the manufacture of shawls from the fine woollen undergrowth of the goats found on the high plateau of Thibet. (*See* AMRITSAR CITY.) Important horse and cattle fairs are held on the chief festivals. The local trade centres so entirely within the city, that the smaller towns are thrown completely into the shade. Jandiálah, Rámdás, Majítha, Tarn Táran, and Vairowál are, however, local marts of some importance. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway traverses the heart of the District, with stations at Wazír Bhullar, Jandiálah, Amritsar, Khasa, and Atári. There are two good metalled roads; the Grand Trunk line, which enters the District from Jullundur by a ferry across the Sutlej (Satlej), and passes on to Lahore, through Amritsar; and the road from Amritsar to Pathánkot, in Gurdáspur, at the foot of the Himalayas. The total mileage of communications in 1875-76 was thus returned: Railways, 61 miles; metalled roads, 76 miles; unmetalled roads, 359 miles. There are two printing-presses in Amritsar.

Administration.—The revenue derived from the District in 1875-76 was £107,196, of which the land tax contributed £83,921, or nearly four-fifths. The two next important items are stamps and excise. The land tax was summarily assessed in 1849-50 at £86,197, but reductions were afterwards found necessary, and granted accordingly. The administration is carried on by 13 civil and revenue officers, who exercise both judicial and magisterial powers. The staff usually includes 3 covenanted civilians. In 1875-76 the regular police force numbered 928 men, including the municipal constabulary, being at the rate of 1 man to every 1·67 square mile of area and every 891 of the population. There is also a body of village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), whose number, however, is not on record. In the 6 years ending 1872, 56 murders were committed in the District, while 78 cases of dacoity, or robbery with violence, were recorded; the number of thefts

and criminal trespasses returned in 1872 was 1315. The District jail at Amritsar contained in 1875 a total number of 1775 prisoners, including 1721 males and 54 females. Education has made great progress in this District. In 1872-73 the returns show 132 schools supported or aided by the State, having a joint roll of 6954 pupils. The cost of the educational establishment amounted to £4858. In 1875-76 the number of schools had risen to 168, while the rolls included as many as 8699 pupils. These figures give an average of 9·2 square miles for each school, and a percentage of 1·04 scholars upon the total population. The principal educational establishments are a female normal school, the higher and middle departments of the District school, and the various mission schools in receipt of grants-in-aid. Female instruction has received considerable attention in Amritsar, 1508 of the scholars in 1872-73 being girls. For administrative purposes the District is divided into 3 *tahsíls* and 23 *parganás*. The joint revenue of the six municipal towns amounted, in 1875-76, to £30,969; while their united expenditure reached a total of £32,112. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 3s. 9½d. per head of the population within municipal limits.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Amritsar is considered more temperate in the summer months than that of many other places in the Punjab; and this fact is doubtless due to the comparative proximity of the hills, joined with the general extension of tillage and irrigation. During the winter months the atmosphere is pleasant and healthy. The annual average rainfall for the 8 years ending 1873-74 amounted to 22·3 inches. The mean temperature in the shade in May 1872 was 84·67°; in July, 81·16°; in December, 52·46°. The highest reading in 1875 was 114° in May. The total number of deaths recorded in the District during 1875 was 30,506, being at the rate of 37 per thousand of the population. Amritsar District contains five charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1875 to 46,859 patients.

Amritsar.—*Tahsíl* of Amritsar District, Punjab; situated in the middle of the Bári Doáb plain, between 31° 28′ 15″ and 31° 51′ N. lat., and between 74° 44′ 30″ and 75° 26′ 15″ E. long., and deriving its name from the city of Amritsar, which lies within its boundaries. Area, 545 square miles; pop. (1868), 401,089.

Amritsar.—City in Amritsar District, Punjab, and Headquarters of the Division. Lat. 31° 37′ 15″ N., long. 74° 55′ E.; population in 1868, 133,925, comprising 49,115 Hindus, 61,193 Muhammadans, 19,267 Síkhs, 130 Christians, and 4220 'others.' Next to Delhi, the wealthiest and most populous city of the Punjab, and the religious capital of the Síkhs. Lies in a depression of the Bári Doáb, 32 miles east of Lahore, and midway between the Beas and the Ravi. Founded by Guru Rám Dás, the apostle of the Síkhs, in 1574, upon a site granted by the

Emperor Akbar, around a sacred tank, from which the city takes its name. A temple was erected in the centre of the *táluk*, and Amritsar (literally 'The Pool of Immortality') became the capital of the rising sect. (See *ante*, p. 180.) Another account mentions that an ancient city, Chak, formed the nucleus of the Síkh saints' capital. Ahmad Sháh destroyed the town in 1761, blew up the temple, and defiled the shrines with bullocks' blood. After his retirement in the succeeding year, the Síkh community assumed political independence, and Amritsar was divided between the various chiefs, each of whom possessed a separate ward as his private estate. The city gradually passed, however, into the power of the Bhangi Confederacy, who retained the supremacy until 1802. In that year Ranjít Sinh seized Amritsar, and incorporated it with his dominions. The Maháráj́á spent large sums of money upon the great shrine, and roofed it with sheets of copper gilt, whence the building derives its popular name of the Golden Temple. He also erected the fortress of Govindgarh, to the north-west of the city, nominally for the protection of the pilgrims, but in reality to overawe their tumultuous assemblages. Part of the massive wall with which he surrounded Amritsar still remains, but the greater portion has been demolished since the British occupation. The present city is handsome and well-built, its oldest portions dating back only to the year 1762, while the greater part is of very recent erection. Near the centre lies the sacred tank, from whose midst rises the Darbár Sáhib, or great temple of the Síkh faith, the focus of the believer's aspirations. It stands upon a rectangular platform, connected with the land by a marble causeway, and consists of a square block surmounted by a gilded dome. Many of the inlaid decorations had been carried off by the Síkh marauders from the tomb of Jahángír and other Muhammadan monuments. The city contains several minor tanks and temples, besides a lofty column, known as the Bába Atal, built over the tomb of a son of Guru Har Govind. A short distance north-west of the modern wall stands the fort of Govindgarh, built by Ranjít Sinh in 1809, and now garrisoned by a company of British infantry with a battery of artillery. North of the city are the civil lines, and beyond them the military cantonment, occupied at present (1877) by two companies of native infantry. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway has a handsome station half a mile north of the city. The chief public buildings are the court-houses and treasury, the Protestant and Roman Catholic churches, post office, telegraph office, police station, jail, dispensary, and Government collegiate school-house. Two great religious fairs are held in Amritsar during the months of November and April. Besides its political importance as the sacred city of the Síkh faith, Amritsar forms the headquarters of several heterodox or fanatical sects.

Amritsar is the most flourishing commercial city of the Punjab,

and it has become the great *entrepôt* and starting-place for the trans-Himalayan traffic. The annual value of the imports into Amritsar is estimated at £2,000,000, and the exports at £1,500,000. Trade is carried on with Bokhára, Kábul, and Kashmir on the north, and with Calcutta, Bombay, and the other Indian seats of commerce southward. The principal imports are grain, pulses, sugar, oil, salt, tobacco, cotton, English piece-goods, Kashmir shawls, silk, glass, earthenware, hardware, tea, and dye-stuffs. The exports are chiefly the same articles, passed through in transit; together with the manufactures of the town, which consist mainly of woollen fabrics and silks. The *spécialité* of the city is the manufacture of shawls from the fine undergrowth of the goats on the plateau of Thibet. The pattern of the best shawls is produced on the loom; the common kinds are woven of a single ground shade, and afterwards embroidered in colours. The looms employed number about 4000. The workers are Kashmíris, whose first settlement took place about the year 1803. Besides the shawls of home manufacture, Amritsar forms the chief mart for the genuine fabrics of Kashmir. Several European firms have agents in the city to make their purchases; and the total annual value of shawls exported to Europe is stated at £200,000, of which the local manufacture contributes £80,000. A full-sized shawl of the best quality will fetch £40 on the spot; smaller sizes range in price from £12 to £30. The other principal items of manufacture are woollen cloth, silk goods, and gold-thread embroidery. Important horse and cattle fairs are held on the two great religious festivals.

The site of Amritsar is very flat, and its drainage difficult to effect, and insufficient. The water supply is obtained from wells, in which impurities commonly occur. Hence Amritsar suffers much from any epidemic which visits the Punjab; and cholera, fever, diarrhœa, and dysentery are very prevalent. The civic administration of Amritsar is conducted by a municipality of the first class. Municipal income in 1875-76, £29,837, or 4s. 4¼d. per head of population (136,609) within municipal limits.

Amroha.—*Tahsíl* of Moradabad District, North-Western Provinces; consists of a level plain traversed by the Rámganga and the Sote. Area, 251 square miles, of which 173 are under cultivation; pop. (1872), 175,711 persons; number of villages, 485; land revenue, £11,752; total revenue, £12,193; rental paid by cultivators, £40,991; incidence of revenue per acre, 1s. 5½d.

Amroha.—Ancient municipal town in Moradabad District, North-Western Provinces; 20 miles north-west of Moradabad, on the road to Bijnor and Muzaffarnagar; frequently mentioned by the Musalmán historians. Lat. 28° 54′ 40″ N., long. 78° 31′ 5″ E.; area, 655 acres; pop. (1872), 34,904 persons, including 10,253 Hindus and 24,630 Muham-

madans. Contains a tank, and tomb of Shaikh Saddu. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2099; from taxes, £1573, or 10¾d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Amsin.—*Parganá* in Fyzabad District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the river Sarju or Gogra, on the east by Tánda *parganá*, on the south by the Madha river, and on the west by Haweli Oudh, and Pachhimráth *parganás*. The aboriginal Bhars have left many ruins in this *parganá*; they themselves have disappeared. The ancient Hindu clans still represented in the *parganá* are the Barwár and Raikwár Kshattriyas, who came to the country about 300 years ago. The former were at one time powerful, but their villages have within the last thirty years passed into the hands of others. Of the 180 villages comprising the *parganá*, 79 are held by Mahárájá Mán Sinh, a Bráhman; the Gargbansis hold 44; Musalmáns, 21, etc. etc. These estates were all formed in the present century. To the old landed families of Barwárs and Raikwárs only 6 villages remain of their ancient estates. The tillage is very good. Irrigation is largely resorted to. Area, 107 square miles, or 68,311 acres, of which 42,543 are cultivated and 10,203 cultivable but not under tillage. Population, allowing for recent transfers: Hindus, 54,539; Muhammadans, 4689; total, 59,228, of whom 30,392 are males and 28,836 females. The Bráhmans are the most numerous section of the population; and, next to them, the Kshattriyas or Rájputs. Markets are held in 9 villages.

Amura Bhauriari (*Amwa Byrria*).—A village in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 47′ N., long. 84° 19′ E.; pop. (1872), 7031.

Amurnáth.—Cave in Kashmir State, Punjab; situated among the mountains which bound that territory on the north-east. Lat. 34° 15′ N., long. 75° 49′ E. It consists of a natural opening in a gypsum rock, about 30 yards in height and 20 in depth, and is held to be the dwelling-place of the god Siva. Thornton mentions this as a resort of pilgrims, whose prayers are supposed to be favourably answered if the doves which inhabit its recesses fly out at the sound of their tumultuous supplications.

Amwá.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 51 N′., long. 84° 16′ 15″ E.; area, 145 acres; pop. (1872), 6150.

An, or Aeng.—River in Kyouk-hpyú (Kyouk-hpyoo) District, Arakan Division, British Burma; rises in the Arakan Yoma Mountains, and flows by a south-westerly course into Combermere Bay. Navigable 45 miles from its mouth during spring tides.

An, or Aeng.—Township in Kyouk-hpyú (Kyouk-hpyoo) District, British Burma. Area estimated at 2833 square miles; pop. (1876), 20,631. It consists of a hilly and densely-wooded country, entirely occupying the eastern portion of Kyouk-hpyú north of the Máí (Maee) river, and bounded by the Arakan Yoma Mountains. The chief rivers are the An and the Máí (Maee). Large quantities of rice,

tobacco, and sesamum are raised for exportation in the river valleys near the sea-coast. From Upper Burma, *viâ* the An Pass, are imported ponies, tea, coarse sugar, lacquered ware, and other articles. Gross revenue (1876), £2565. Before 1826 An formed a Burmese Governorship; after our conquest it was united with Sandoway; and in 1833 erected into a separate District, with portions of the present Kyouk-hpyú and Akyab Districts joined to it. In 1838 the headquarters were removed from An to Kyouk-hpyú, and 11 circles were added to it from Ramrí (Ramree) District. In 1852 Ramrí and An were united into the Kyouk-hpyú District.

An, or Aeng.—Town and headquarters of An township, Kyoukhpyú (Kyouk-hpyoo) District, British Burma; situated in lat. 19° 49′ 30″ N., and long. 94° 4′ 45″ E., on the river An, 45 miles from its mouth. An important seat of transit trade between the Arakan coast and Independent Burma; it forms, indeed, the starting-place for the great trade route over the Yoma Mountains to Ava. The pass rises from 147 feet to 4517 feet above the sea level. The descent is steepest on its east side, the gradients averaging 472 feet per mile. The stockade of Nariengain, at the summit of the pass, was captured from the Burmese by a British detachment in 1853. Population of An town (1875), 1528, chiefly engaged in commerce.

Anagundí.—Town in Madras.—*See* VIJAYANAGAR.

Anagundí.—The capital of the Narapatti dynasty in the 14th century. *See* VIJAYANAGAR.

Anakápalle (*Anakapilli*).—Estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Originally only tributary to the Vizianagram Rájás, it passed entirely into the hands of the family by purchase at auction in 1802, subject to a tribute (*peshkash*) to Government of £3076 per annum, and was resold by the Rájá to Gode Jaggappa. It consists of 16 villages, and comprises some of the richest land in the District.

Anakápalle.—*Táluk* in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Contains 406 'towns' and villages, all *zamíndárí* (belonging to private estateholders), with 39,373 houses and 165,499 inhabitants. Classified according to religion, there were in 1871—Hindus, 162,489, including 116,503 Vaishnavs and 45,757 Shivas; Muhammadans, 2932, among them 92 Wahábís; Christians, 28. Chief town, ANAKAPALLE.

Anakápalle (*Ankapilli*).—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 41′ 20″ N., long. 83° 3′ E.; houses, 3554; pop. (1871), 13,317. Situated on the Sáradánadi river and the great trunk road, 20 miles south-west of Vizagapatam; also connected by road with Púdima-duka, which serves as its port. A rising town of recent growth, and an agricultural centre, with an export trade in sugar and cotton. Most of the surrounding country belongs to the Rájá of Vizianagram. There was a political disturbance here, speedily quelled, in 1832.

Being the headquarters (*kasbá*) of the *táluk*, it possesses the usual subordinate courts, jail, dispensary, and school. In population, Anaká-palle ranks fourth among the towns of the District.

Anamalai (*Annamally*, literally 'Elephant Mountains').—A range of hills and tablelands in the Coimbatore District and Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 10° 13′ 45″–10° 31′ 30″ N., long. 76° 52′ 30″–77° 23′ E. They form a portion of the great Western Gháts, and eventually merge into the Travancore Hills. A submontane strip (*tarái*), overgrown with dense jungle, and dangerous from its malarious exhalations, belts their base; but the higher lands have been described in terms of admiration for their perennial streams, splendid timber, and excellent building stone. The soil supports a flora of extraordinary variety and beauty; while the climate equals in salubrity that of any sanitarium, and in suitability for coffee cultivation, etc., any plantation of Southern India. The scenery is said to be at once grand and lovely. These plateaus therefore seem, if their natural advantages have not been exaggerated, to fulfil in a singular degree all the requirements of a site for European colonization. Difficulty of access, want of labour, the fever-tract that encircles them, and the unhealthiness of the lower range, have, however, to be contended with. The hills are divided into two ranges—the higher and the lower. The higher varies in height from 6000 to 8000 feet, and consists for the most part of open grassy hills and valleys, filled with a forest growth similar to that of the Nílgiris. It contains Michael's valley, named after Captain Michael, who may be said to have discovered the range in 1851, and the Tanakka tableland. The lower range averages a height of 2000 feet, and is densely wooded with valuable timber. The Government forest, which for many years supplied the Bombay dockyards with teak, lies at the extreme west of this range. It includes not only the reserved forest within the Coimbatore limits, which is the sole property of Government, but also an extent of forest within the Malabar District leased for 99 years from the proprietor, the Nambúri of Kolingád, on a stump fee for all timber felled. The estimated extent of this forest is 80 square miles. The teak trees are felled on the plateau about 3000 feet above sea level, and the logs are dragged by trained elephants to timber slides, by which they are slipped down to the plain. Some logs are floated by river to Beypore (Bépur), others are carted to Pótanúr junction or Coimbatore, on the Madras Railway, and others are brought and sold at the depôt in Anamalai town. The saw is very little used in this forest; the work is done by skilled Malayálam axe men from Palghát. Since the abolition of the Bombay dockyard the receipts from this forest have seriously fallen off, and the Burma teak competes with the Anamalai timber in the market. The teak in the forest had been overworked, and some years must elapse before it can recover. The

chief streams of these hills are the Khundali, Tarakadavu, and Konalár. The two latter meet at the foot of Pal Malai, where the joint stream pours over a precipice 300 feet high, and (under the name of the Tarakadavu) rushes down densely-wooded gorges to the lowlands, where it joins the Ponai. The chief peaks are Anamudi, 8850 feet, the highest, therefore, in Southern India; Tanakka, 8147; Kathu Malai, 8400; Kumárikal, 8200; and Karrinkola, 8480. Five others average a height of 7200 feet. The range of the thermometer throughout the year is not known; but from February to May 1874 the minimum recorded was 45°, the maximum 76° (?). Geologically, the Anamalai range resembles the Nílgiris, being gneiss of the metamorphic formation freely veined with felspar and quartz, and interspersed with reddish porphyrite. The abundance of teak, *vengé* (Pterocarpus marsupium), blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), and bamboos make the flora of great commercial value. Several new species of plants have been found. Elephants, bison, *sámbhar*, and ibex are still numerous.

The hills are virtually uninhabited. On the northern and western sides are found small scattered colonies of Kaders ('lords of the hills') and Malassers. Over a wider range, members of the Puliyar and Maravar tribes are met with. The Kaders will perform no menial labour, but make excellent guides and assistants to sportsmen. They are described as a truthful and obliging people, exercising some influence over the other forest folk. In feature they resemble the African, but are small of stature. They file the front teeth of the upper jaw as a marriage ceremony. The Malassers are more amenable to civilisation, and occasionally take to cultivation and adopt settled habits. The Puliyars are a wild-looking race, who number in all about 200, living in five villages among the lower plateaus. Their religion is a demon-worship, their marriage system monogamous, and their food anything. They are the only natives available for carrying loads. The Maravars form a very small clan, distinguished for their timidity and nomadic habits. They have no fixed habitations, but wander over the mountains with their cattle, erecting temporary huts, and seldom remaining more than a year at one place. They worship the idols of the Puliyars. All these hill tribes are keen hunters, and eke out subsistence by gathering wild forest produce, gums, stick-lac, turmeric, cardamoms, honey, and wax, which they sell or barter to the lowlanders, to whom they are generally in debt. Coffee-planting has already been commenced, and on the western side of the Tarakadavu valley three estates have been opened out. They have as yet been free from both leaf disease and the 'borer.' Land on the Anamalais is sold under the ordinary waste-land rules at an upset price of 10s. per acre, *plus* the cost of demarcation, the purchaser guaranteeing to bring the lands under cultivation within a certain period. Although at present unin-

habited, the upper plateaus disclose traces of a population in pre-historic times in numerous *dolmens*, or Cyclopean monuments, similar to those found on the Nílgiris and Shevaroys, and in the plains of Coimbatore, Salem, and Malabar.

Anamalai.—Town or cluster of villages in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 35′ N., long. 76° 59′ 30″ E.; houses, 4791; pop. (1871), 22,293, almost entirely agricultural. Situated on the Aliyár river, 23 miles south-east of Palghát, and 12 miles from the lower spurs of the Anamalai range. It includes the village of Vetákaran and several hamlets, the original site of Anamalai itself comprising only 5486 inhabitants and 1291 houses. Rice is largely cultivated, but the principal crop is a dry one—*cholum* (Sorghum). The increase of population since 1850 has been so great that a large tract of forest land has been gradually cleared away towards the south, to make room for the augmented cultivation required. An important Government depôt for the timber felled in the neighbouring plateau has been long established here, a good cart-road connecting it with Polláchi. A market, chiefly for forest produce, is held weekly.

Anamasamudrapet.—Village in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 41′ 40″ N., long. 79° 43′ E. Contains a fine mosque, one of the most ancient in this part of the country, and the scene of a great annual gathering, of nine days, to celebrate the *Urusu*, a festival held in honour of the founder, Khwaja Ramtulla. The mosque has an endowment of eight villages.

Anan-baw.—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, British Burma. Area, 270 square miles; pop. (1876), 4418, chiefly Karengs. Situated to the north of Rangoon District, between the river Tsit-toung and the Yoma Mountains. The silk produced in this circle is largely exported to Prome District. Total revenue (1876), £665.

Anand.—Chief town of the Anand Subdivision, Kaira District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 32′ 30″ N., long. 73° 0′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 8773. A station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, 40 miles south of Ahmedabad. Post office.

Anandpur.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consists of 32 villages, having 7 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £2911; tribute paid to the British Government, £71, 10s.

Anandpur.—Municipal town in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 15′ N., long. 76° 34′ E.; pop. (1868), 6869 persons, comprising 3219 Hindus, 994 Muhammadans, 1797 Síkhs, and 859 'others.' Situated at the base of Niná Deví peak, on a tongue of land formed by a bend in the Sutlej (Satlej), built on the left bank of the river. Founded in 1678 by Guru Govind. Residence of the principal branch of the sacred family of Sodhis, or descendants of Guru Rám Dás (*see* AMRITSAR DISTRICT), and headquarters of the Akali sect. Great annual

religious fairs, attended by an enormous concourse of Síkhs. Centre of trade for Jandbárí or trans-Sutlej tract. Headquarters of police subdivision, post office, dispensary. Distant from Calcutta, 1107 miles north-west. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £171; incidence per head on population within municipal limits (6405), 6¼d.

Anandpur.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal, with considerable silk manufacture. Lat. 21° 41′ 50″ N., long. 87° 35′ 30″ E.

Anantagiri.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras, with residence of the Vizianagram Rájá; coffee estate. Situated 3111 feet above the sea, on the crest of the Galikonda Hills, which here form the boundary between the Vizianagram and Panchepenta domains. Pop. 250.

Anantapur.—Ancient town in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 4′ 50″ N., long. 75° 15′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 711. A chief point of attack during the insurrection of 1830.

Anantapur.—*Táluk* in Bellary District, Madras. Area, 789 square miles; pop. (1871), 101,558; total revenue, £19,486, of which the land revenue contributed £11,937. Of the total acreage, about 70 per cent. is under cultivation, the 'wet' lands yielding the larger half of the whole assessment. About 80 miles of made road keep the communications open between the chief towns, Anantapur, Bakkarayasamudram, Tádmari, and Singanamalla. The largest tanks of the *táluk* are those of Anantapur and Singanamalla, each irrigating over 2000 acres. Chief town, Anantapur.

Anantapur.—Municipality in Bellary District, Madras; 30 miles south of Gooty (Gúti) and 50 miles south-east of Bellary. Lat. 14° 40′ 58″ N., long. 77° 39′ E.; houses, 1056; pop. (1871), 4920; municipal revenue (1875-76), £648; incidence per head of rateable population, 8d. Formerly the headquarters of the District, and till 1869 a Subdivisional station, now only the *kasbá* (headquarters) of the *táluk*, with subordinate police and magisterial courts, jail, dispensary, school, post office, travellers' bungalow. Anantapur, said to be the western limit of the true Karnatakadesa or Canarese country, was founded in the 14th century by the Díwán of Vijaynagar court, to whom the site was granted in consideration of military service, and in whose family it remained till Haidar Alí absorbed it in 1775. A large tank in the vicinity, constructed in 1364 A.D. by damming up the Pandú river, irrigates land assessed at £1200.—*See* ANANTASAGARAM.

Anantapur.—Shrine in the Rayachote *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras. The Gangá Játra festival held here is one of the most important of the District; nearly all the Súdra community of the surrounding *táluks* assemble on the occasion. A large number of buffaloes and goats are sacrificed, their blood running in streams over the holy ground.

Anantaságaram.—The ancient name of Handé Anantapur ('The eternal city of Handé'), a town in the Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 14° 40′ N., long. 77° 40′ E. It was built in 1364 by the Díwán of Vijayanagar family, who dammed the Pandú river at this place and built a village on either side of the stream, the western one being named Anantaságaram. The embankment was breached soon afterwards, and a daughter of the chief of the village was sacrificed to the river deity, being built up alive in the repairs of the breach.—*See* ANANTAPUR.

Anantaságaram.—Town in the Atmakúr *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 34′ 30″ N., long. 79° 26′ 30″ E.; pop. 3086; houses, 563. Contains a fine mosque, and a remarkable tank, 40 feet deep, paved and riveted throughout; constructed 1522 A.D.

Anchittai-durgam.—Hill fort in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 21′ N., long. 77° 45′ 45″ E. Notable for its gallant defence in 1760 by Makdúm Alí, against the superior forces of Kandarao. The village of Anchittái in the vicinity is 7 miles east of Seringapatam.

Andaman Islands.—Situated on the east side of the Bay of Bengal, and forming a continuation of the archipelago, which extends from Cape Negrais in British Burma to Achin Head on the north coast of Sumatra. They lie at a distance of 590 geographical miles from the Húglí mouth of the Ganges, and 160 miles from Cape Negrais, stretching from 10° 30′ to 13° 45′ N. lat., and from 92° 15′ to 93° 15′ E. long. They consist of the Great and Little Andaman groups, surrounded by a number of small islands. One of the most considerable of these latter is Interview Island, immediately west of the Great Andaman. Between the Andamans and Cape Negrais there are two small groups, PREPARIS and Cocos. The Great Andaman group is 156 miles in length and 20 miles in breadth. It comprises four islands—the Northern, Middle, and Southern Andaman and Rutland Island—separated from each other by three narrow straits, of which two, Macpherson's Strait and Middle Strait, are navigable; the third (Andaman Strait, separating Middle and North Islands) is not passable by boat at low water. The length of the different islands is as follows:—North Andaman, 51 miles; Middle Andaman, 59 miles; South Andaman, 49 miles; and Rutland Island, 11 miles. The Little Andaman, which lies about 30 miles south of the larger group, is 28 miles long and 17 miles broad. Port Blair, the principal harbour, is situated on the south-east shore of the southern island of the Great Andaman, in lat. 11° 42′ N., and long. 93° E. It is one of the most perfect harbours in the world, and half the British Navy might ride in it; while its central position in the Bay of Bengal gives it immense advantage as a place of rendezvous for a fleet. Stretching across the mouth of the harbour is Ross Island, running nearly north and south, with a passage into the port on either side.

Physical Aspects.—The most conspicuous geographical feature of the islands is a central range of mountains in the Great Andaman, the highest point of which, Saddle Peak, reaches an elevation of nearly 3000 feet. There are many other little hills, most of them covered with jungle 'scarcely to be equalled for its density and unhealthiness in any part of the Eastern world.' The scenery is beautiful. Graceful forest trees shoot up to a height of more than 100 feet, with large clumps of bamboos, from 30 to 35 feet high; palms abound. The banian and the almond, the ebony, the *sundrí* and the poplar, the red-wood, and the iron-tree which turns the edge of the axe, are all found in the Andaman forests, mixed in beautiful confusion with cotton-trees, screw pines, and arborescent euphorbias. The mangrove is very abundant, inhabiting the low-lying pestilential swamps between the hills, and giving shelter to the loveliest orchids. Everywhere a dense undergrowth renders the jungle impenetrable by man or beast, and innumerable creepers stretching from tree to tree prevent the escape of malarious exhalations. The general character of the vegetation is Burmese, but there are also Malayan types not found on the adjacent continent. There is a remarkable absence of animal life in the islands. Almost the only mammals are hogs (which are used for food), rats, and ichneumons. The iguana is found, and scorpions and snakes of various kinds. Birds are rare; amongst those observed are pigeons, paroquets, Indian crows, woodpeckers, kingfishers, and a few sea-fowl. Edible birds' nests are found in the recesses of the rocks. Fish in great variety is very abundant all round the coast; among other kinds may be mentioned grey mullet, rock cod, skate, soles: prawns, shrimps, cray-fish, oysters, etc. There are also large sharks. Turtles are plentiful, and are frequently sent to Calcutta. Near Port Blair, in the South Andaman, the principal rocks are grey tertiary sandstone; in other parts, serpentine and indurated chloritic rock are seen. Traces of coal have been discovered in the rock, but no seam. Coral reefs surround the islands on all sides; on the west they are continuous and extensive, and reefs occur 20 or 25 miles from the shore.

History.—The islands cannot be identified with certainty in Ptolemy, but Colonel H. Yule, from whose account in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* much of the information in this article is taken, thinks it 'probable that this name itself is traceable in the Alexandrian geographer.' The name Andaman first appears distinctly in a remarkable collection of Arab notes on India and China (9th century), translated by Renandot and again by Reinaud. 'But it seems possible,' says Colonel Yule, 'that the tradition of marine nomenclature had never perished; that the Ἀγαθοῦ δαίμονος νῆσος was really a misunderstanding of some form like Agdaman, while Νῆσοι Βαρούσσαι survived as Lanká *Bálús*, the name applied by the Arabs to the Nicobars. The islands are briefly noticed

by Marco Polo, who probably saw, without visiting them, under the name *Angamanain* seemingly an Arabic dual, "the two Angamans."' Our connection with the islands began in 1789, when the Bengal Government established on them a convict settlement and a harbour of refuge for ships blown out of their course. During seven years the settlers struggled against the deadly malaria of the jungles, the bludgeons of the natives, and the failure of supplies from the mainland; till, in 1796, the Indian Government found itself compelled to bring away the remnant and to abandon the Colony. Throughout the next half-century the Andamans appear in the records only as a cluster of cannibal islands, peopled with fierce fish-eating tribes, who promptly killed the savant we had sent to study their natural history, cut off stragglers from two troop-vessels that had gone ashore, and murdered shipwrecked crews. These atrocities at length forced on the Indian authorities the reoccupation of the islands. A new settlement was projected in 1855, and the number of life prisoners left by the Mutiny led to the establishment of the present convict colony in 1858. The settlement had again a hard struggle for life. The Arab geographers describe the Andamanese as 'savages who eat men alive; black, with woolly hair; in their eyes and countenances something frightful; who go naked, and have no boats—if they had, they would devour all who pass near.' These stories, and Marco Polo's legend of them as dog-faced anthropophagi, gave place to stern realities. The convict settlement found itself surrounded by savages of a low and ferocious type, who decorated themselves with red earth, mourned in a suit of olive-coloured mud, used *crying* to express the emotions of friendship or joy, bore only names of common gender which they received before birth, and whose sole approach to the conception of a God was that of an evil spirit who spread disease. For five years they continued bitter enemies of the colony, 'repulsing all approaches with treachery, or by showers of arrows,' murdering every one who strayed into the woods, and plotting robberies and arsons of a merciless sort. By degrees, however, the British officers persuaded them to a better mind, by stern reprisals on the guilty, and by building homes near the settlement for the less hostile—sheds where they might be protected from the tropical rains, and receive food and medicines. Latterly an orphanage has been established for their children, under the care of European matrons. The most memorable event in the history of the Andaman Islands is the assassination of Lord Mayo, Viceroy and Governor-General of India, while on a tour of inspection, on the 8th February 1872.

Population.—The population of the Andamans, in addition to the convicts and the establishment required for their safe keeping, etc., consists of the aborigines, to whom reference has been made in the preceding paragraphs. The mutineer element, which was of course largely

represented in the convict population on the re-establishment of the settlement in 1858, has now nearly died out, and the colony is replenished from the jails of Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and British Burma. In 1867 the population of Ross Island, exclusive of the aborigines, was returned as follows:—Prisoners of all classes, 2330; officials and free residents, 371; European troops, 111; sappers, 128; marines, 20; police, 60—total, 3020. The total convict population of the whole settlement on the 1st January 1867 was 6678, of whom 6643 were Natives, and 35 Europeans and Eurasians. In 1870, the total convict population was 7460, and in 1871, 7603. Since then, only life prisoners have been sent to the colony, and the number is considerably smaller. The aborigines of the Andamans are of a very low type—apparently Oriental negroes, whose origin is involved in obscurity. Indications are not wanting that the race to which they belong was widely diffused, tribes of somewhat similar character being found in the mountains of the Malay Peninsula, in the interior of Great Nicobar, in the Philippines, and even, according to Colonel Yule, in Tasmania. Their origin has been the subject of much discussion, and remains a curious and very interesting ethnographical problem. A *résumé* of various hypotheses is given in the *Calcutta Review* for January 1878, No. CXXXI. Their skin is very black, and they are of small stature, very few of them exceeding 5 feet in height, while many are much shorter. They have a robust frame, and their unhealthiness must be attributed to the exposed nature of the lives they lead in a very damp climate. Few of them pass the age of forty, and the race seems to be gradually dying out. A gentleman who visited the islands in 1869 only saw one woman who had as many as three children; and he was informed that no other family possessed more than two. From April 1868 to 1869, 38 deaths were reported, and only 14 births, among the aborigines who resided near our settlements. Their present number is unknown, conjecture varying from 2000 to 10,000; those who live in the neighbourhood of our settlements are divided into tribes, rarely above 30 strong. They go naked and live in leaf dwellings, or rather enclosures, which cannot be called huts; their food, which consists chiefly of turtle, wild roots and fruits, honey, fish, and when they can get it, hog, is always cooked. They are good archers, making their own bows and arrows, and they shoot and spear fish with great dexterity. They are quite at home in the water, being perfect divers and swimmers, and they manage their rough but neatly fashioned canoes very expertly. They are monogamists, and those under British influence seem to be of a kindly disposition among themselves, quite fearless, and though irritable, not vindictive. Their language is very deficient, they have no numerals, and the inhabitants of Little Andaman are said not to understand those of South Andaman.

Agriculture is absolutely unknown to the aboriginal population; and

with the exception of patches here and there, which have been cleared by the convicts, the islands are almost totally uncultivated.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The old ill-fame of the Andamans, as regards unhealthiness, is disappearing under a more careful medical supervision. The islands have been steadily improving in this respect for several years past. In 1870, out of an average convict population of 7460, the average daily sick amounted to 398; the percentage of deaths, including 14 violent deaths, being only a very little over 1 per cent., as against 2 per cent. in 1869, 3·9 per cent. in 1868, and 10·16 per cent. in 1867. The percentage in 1871 was about the same as in 1870. The climate is very moist; the islands being exposed to the full force of the south-west monsoon, only four months of fair weather (February to May) can be counted on. The rainy season lasts from June to September, and what is called the 'moderate' season from October to January. The average annual rainfall for the four years ending 1872 was 119·67 inches, varying from 100·09 to 155·7 inches. The annual mean temperature reduced to sea level is about 81° F. The aborigines suffer, as might be expected, from fevers, colds, lung complications, bowel complaints, headache, toothache, and rheumatism. They have recently begun to appreciate the value of quinine. The sea-tract around the Andaman Islands is, according to Piddington (*Law of Storms*), subject to cyclones 'of terrific violence, though they seem to be of rare occurrence.'

Andar.—*Ghát* in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 20′ 15″ N., long. 75° 4′ 30″ E. Leads into Mysore; impracticable for wheeled vehicles.

Andaw ('*Sacred Double Tooth*').—Pagoda in Sandoway District, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the river Sandoway, opposite the town of the same name. Lat. 18° 27′ 15″ N., long. 94° 28′ E. It is said to have been built in 761 A.D. as the receptacle for a tooth of Gautama Buddha.

Andhra.—Ancient name of one of the principal kingdoms in Eastern India, and at one time applied to the whole country of Telingána, although this extended application ignored or included the coast kingdom of Kalinga. The Peutingerian Tables, presumed to be earlier than Ptolemy, omit all mention of Kalinga, but speak of Andræ Indi. Ptolemy (A.D. 150) mentions Kalinga, but not Andhra. The Puránas mention both—as do Pliny and Hiouen Thsang (A.D. 630). At the latter date, Andhra was recognised as one of the six great Dravidian Divisions. An Andhra dynasty, according to Wilson, reigned in Magadha about 18 B.C. Sanskrit writers call the Telegu language Andhra, and the Dravidian tongue generally Andhra-Dravida-Bháshá. The ancient capital was WARANGUL, identified by some with Hiouen Thsang's Ping-ki-lo.

Andhra.—Estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 20′ 45″ N., long. 83° 15′ E.; pop. (1871), 7872, inhabiting 1859 houses, grouped into 52 hamlets; area, 3114 acres. This estate is all that to-day represents the great Dravidian Division of ANDHRA. The ancestor of the present proprietor obtained the estate from the Jeypore chief, and on his descendants allying themselves with the Vizianagram family, Andhra passed under the patronage of that house. It was assessed at the time of the Permanent Settlement at £138.

Andipatti.—Range of hills in Madura District, Madras, running from the Travancore chain, and known during the last 15 miles of its length (altogether 55 miles) as the Naga Malai. They nowhere exceed 3000 feet in height, and being covered with thorny scrub or quite bare rocks, are uninhabited. Abounding in game, bison, deer of several kinds, pig, cheetah, and, at certain seasons, elephants. Lat. of chief peak, 9° 56′ N., long. 77° 44′ 30″ E.

Andipatti.—Town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° N., long. 77° 40′ E.; houses, 2792; pop. (1871), 7684, almost purely agricultural. Situated about 40 miles north-west of Madura, and at the north-eastern spur of the Andipatti Hills. The pagoda of Andipatti has received from Government since 1806 an annual grant of £24.

Andiyár.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 34′ 45″ N., long. 77° 37′ 45″ E.; houses, 1246; pop. (1871), 6135, almost entirely agricultural. Situated on a tributary of the Bhaváni river, 12 miles from Bhaváni, and, by the district road, 30 miles from the Erode railway station. Formerly the chief town (*kasbá*) of the *táluk*, and still a busy place with a well-attended weekly market. The ruins of a fort stand in the middle of the town.

Anechaukur.—Toll station in Coorg, Southern India, on the road through the Western Gháts by which a large portion of the produce of the State passes down to the Malabar coast. The traffic returns for 1874-75 give a total of 13,099 carts and 16,408 pack-bullocks.

Anekal.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore. Lat. (centre) 12° 42′ 40″ N., long. 77° 44′ E. Area, 178 square miles; pop. (1871), 55,895. Land revenue, exclusive of water rates (1874-75), £5725, or 2s. 10d. per cultivated acre. Manufactures—iron, cotton, silk, muslin, turbans, and carpets.

Anekal (*'Hailstone'*).—Municipal town in Bangalore District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 42′ 40″ N., long. 77° 44′ E.; pop. (1871), 6612, of whom 6164 are Hindus. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £63; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. Anciently the fortified capital of a line of Poligars, where Haidar Alí found shelter when driven from Seringapatam by an insurrection; now the headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Angadipuram (*'The Market Town'*).—Town in Malabar District,

Madras. Lat. 10° 58′ 55″ N., long. 76° 16′ 51″ E.; houses, 1435; pop. (1871), 7644. Headquarters of the *táluk*, and an important market town, situated 45 miles south-east of Calicut, with which it is connected by a good road; possessing subordinate court, jail, police establishment, post office, etc. The fort, maintained till 1800, is now a ruin. The town is notable for its temple, a building of great sanctity, and as having been the scene of one of the most desperate of the Mopla outrages in 1849.

Angarbari.—A detached peak of the Saranda Hills in Singbhúm District, Bengal; height, 2137 feet. Lat. 20° 30′ N., long. 85° 37′ 30″ E.

Angrazabad.—Town, Maldah District.—*See* ENGLISH BAZAR.

Angul.—Formerly one of the Tributary States of Orissa, but now under the direct management of the Bengal Government; lying between 20° 32′ 5″ and 21° 10′ 55″ N. lat., and between 84° 18′ 10″ and 85° 42′ 45″ E. long.; area 881 square miles; pop. (1872), 78,374. It is bounded on the north by the States of Rádhákol and Bámrá in the Central Provinces; on the east by Tálcher and Hindol States; on the south by Narsinhpur and Daspallá States and the Mahánadí river; and on the west by the State of Athmallik. With the exception of the southern portion, which is hilly, the country is level. The greater part remains buried under primeval jungle, but small patches are cultivated with rice, sugar-cane, oil-seeds, cotton, and millets. Droughts frequently destroy the crops; scarcely any part is in danger of flood. The State was confiscated in 1847, in punishment for the ex-Rájá's continued disobedience, and his attempt to wage war against the English; his family receive pensions from Government. The State is managed by a *tahsíldár*, or receiver, on behalf of the Bengal Government, under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Cuttack. The tribute paid by the State prior to its confiscation was £165. The population is composed of 63,505 Hindus, 189 Muhammadans, and 14,680 persons of other denominations, consisting of aboriginal tribes who still retain their primitive forms of faith—total population, 78,374; of these, 39,777, or 50·7 per cent., are males. The number of villages in the State is 352, and of houses, 13,892. Average density of the population, 89 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·39; persons per village, 223; houses per square mile, 16; persons per house, 5·6. The principal aboriginal tribes are the Kandhs, of whom there are 5423, and the Taálas, 3358. Of semi-Hinduized aborigines, the Páns number 10,341, and the Khairás, 2743. The most numerous Hindu caste is that of the Chásás (an agricultural class), of whom there are 25,761. The number of Bráhmans is 2128, and of Rájputs, 1283. The chief villages are Angul and Chhindipádá. The latter village is situated in 21° 5′ N. lat. and 84° 55′ E. long., and contained in 1862, 149 houses. Before 1847, no trade was carried on in

the State, but since then, fairs attended by traders from Cuttack and the neighbouring districts, have been established at several places. The Bráhmaní river flows within a mile of the north-east boundary, and might form a valuable trade route for the products of the State. The high road from Cuttack to Sambalpur passes through Angul, supplying a good means of communication and transport. Coal and iron are found in the State. (For an account of the Tálcher coal-field, which includes a considerable portion of Angul, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, xix. pp. 325-328.) There were in 1872 six Government schools, attended by 196 pupils; and 43 *páthsálás* or indigenous village schools.

Angul.—Chief village of the State of the same name, in Orissa, and residence of the ex-Rájá's family. Lat. 20° 47′ 50″ N., long. 85° 1′ 26″ E.

An-gyí (*An-gyee*).—Maritime township in Rangoon District, British Burma, lying between 16° 18′ and 16° 45′ N. lat., and between 95° 54′ and 96° 23′ E. long.; area, 600 square miles; pop. (1876), 75,147. Comprises 14 revenue circles; headquarters at Twante. A fertile tract, traversed by the Rangoon and To or China Bakir rivers and the Thakhwot-peng or Bassein creek, the last being navigable from Rangoon to the Irrawaddy (Irawadi) throughout the whole year. Salt and pots for salt-boiling are manufactured in the township, and rice is extensively grown for the Rangoon market. Gross revenue (1876), £44,489. The old name of this country was Dala, which was changed to An-khyee (corrupted to An-gyee), literally 'Admirable.'

Anjangaon.—Municipal town in Ellichpur District, Berar, on the Shánur river; 16 miles west of Ellichpur town. Lat. 21° 10′ 30″ N., long. 77° 20′ 30″ E.; pop. (1867), 8615. A mart for cotton cloth, excellent basket-work, and *pán* grown in the adjacent garden lands. Large weekly market. In December 1803, Sir Arthur Wellesley, with plenary powers from the Governor-General (Marquess Wellesley), here concluded with Wittal Pant, Sindhia's Prime Minister, the Treaty of Sarji Angangaon, which crushed the Marhattá supremacy. Municipal taxation, £290.

Anjangaon Bari.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar; 10 miles from Amráoti town. Pop. (1867), 3123.

Anjanwel.—Seaport in Ratnágiri District, Bombay. Lat. 17° 33′ N., long. 73° 13′ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—Exports, £362,135; imports, £229,494.

Anjar.—Town in the State of Cutch (Kachchh), in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 5′ 45″ N., long. 70° 9′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 12,944. As a friendly return for the assistance rendered to the Chief of Cutch in recovering certain possessions, the town and District of Anjár were ceded by him in 1816 to the East India Company. In 1822 the arrangement was modified by a new treaty, under

which the territory ceded was restored, on condition of an annual money payment. In 1832 the subject was reconsidered, and the claim both as to arrears and prospective payments was relinquished.

Anjengo (*Attinga, Anju-tenga:* 'Five Cocoa-nut Trees').—Town enclosed within the territory of Travancore State, but under the jurisdiction of Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 8° 40′ N., long. 76° 47′ 50″ E.; houses, 436; pop. (1871), 2410, chiefly Christians. Situated 78 miles north-west-by-west of Cape Comorin, on a strip of sandy soil on the coast of the Arabian Sea. An extensive backwater stretches behind the town. Station of a sub-magistrate. Formerly an important place, Anjengo has declined to a mere fishing town. Owing to its isolation in native territory, its land trade suffers, while from the want of shelter for shipping it attracts little sea commerce. A strong surf beats on the shore; and as ships can find no safe anchorage nearer than 1½ miles, communication with the land is always difficult. The water supply, moreover, is both scanty and indifferent in quality. In 1684, the Company obtained permission from the Ráni of Attinga to occupy the site, and in 1695 a factory, with fortifications, was erected. Though the defects of the situation were from the first apparent, it was hoped that the facilities afforded for the collection of pepper, coir, and calicoes would compensate, and for a while Anjengo ranked as an important post. The 'Factor' was second in Council in Bombay; and under him were placed the ports of Koleche, Edar, and Bringhi. During the wars of the Carnatic, Anjengo was also found of use as a dépôt for military stores, and as the point from which the first news of outward-bound ships reached Madras. These factitious advantages, however, did not compensate for natural defects; and in 1792, the town was reported to be in hopeless decline. In 1809, during the hostilities with Travancore, its roadstead was completely blockaded; and in the following year the post of Commercial Resident was abolished, and the station made subordinate to the Political Resident at Trevandrum. The old fort, now a ruin, was once of considerable strength. Robert Orme, the historian, was born here; and here, too, lived Eliza Draper, the lady of Sterne's affection.

Anji.—Town, Wardha District, Central Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Dhám river, about 9 miles north-west of Wardha town. An important town under the Marhattás, by whom the present mud fort was built. Pop. (1870), 2769, principally cultivators, with a few weavers. Weekly market, with considerable trade in woven cloth. A municipality, the expenses of conservancy and town police being derived from octroi duties. Vernacular school.

Anjinad.—A tract now dependent on the Travancore State, Madras, comprising a valley and hill range; area, 231 square miles. The hills form a part of the Pulney (Palani) Mountains, and are divided into

two ranges, the higher having an average elevation of 7500 feet above the sea level.

Ankewalliá.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consists of three villages, with two independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £1486; tribute paid to the British Government, £130.

An-khyoung.—Revenue circle in An Township, Kyouk-hpyú (Kyouk-hpyoo) District, British Burma. Area, 481 square miles; pop. (1876), 3036. It stretches westward from the Arakan Mountains beyond the river An. Chief crop, sesamum. Gross revenue (1876-77), £465.

Ankleswar.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Broach District, Bombay. Lat. 21° 37′ 58″ N., long. 73° 2′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 9414. A station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, 3 miles south of Broach. Connected by a road with Hánsot (in the Ankleswar Subdivision), 12 miles to the west, and with another running for 9 miles eastward towards Nándod, in the State of Rájpipla (Rewá Kánta Agency), Ankleswar has of late become the chief mart of a considerable area of country. Cotton is the staple article of commerce, and during the last thirteen years the town has been supplied with three cotton ginning factories. There is also a trade in rafters and bamboos, brought from the Rájpipla forests, and a small manufacture of country soap, paper, and stone hand-mills. Subordinate judge's court and post office.

Ankola.—Seaport in the Coompta Subdivision of North Kanara District, Bombay. Lat. 14° 39′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 20′ 55″ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—Exports, £2789; imports, £6212.

An-let-wai.—Revenue circle in An Township, Kyouk-hpyú (Kyouk-hpyoo) District, British Burma. Area, 1200 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 2105. Situated to the extreme north of the District, on the right bank of the river An, in a mountainous and densely-wooded country. Chief crop, sesamum; land revenue (1876-77), £664; capitation tax, £200.

An-let-ya.—Revenue circle in An Township, Kyouk-hpyú (Kyouk-hpyoo) District, British Burma; lies in the valley of the An, in the hilly country to the north-east of the District. Land revenue (1876-77), £492; capitation tax, £323; pop. 3469.

Annamarazpet.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras; once the residence of a branch of the Vizianagram family, by whom Srí Venugopála Swámí was established here and a large pagoda built. Endowment, £363, derived from land.

Annigeri.—Town in Dharwar District, Bombay; 29 miles east of Dharwar, on the main road from Dharwar to Bellary *viâ* Garag. Lat. 15° 24′ 52″ N., and long. 75° 28′ 31″ E.; pop. (1872), 7098. There is considerable trade in grain and cotton, and a large weekly market.

Anouk-bhet.—Township in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. A narrow strip occupying the western portion of the District, and traversed throughout its length by a low range of hills (highest point 500 feet), forming the western watershed of the river Tavoy. In the north is the large sweet-water lake Hien-tsai (15 miles long and 6 to 8 miles broad), fed by numerous streams, and emptying itself into the sea by a narrow mouth obstructed by a sand-bar. Chief products, rice, the Nipa palm, and salt. Gross revenue (1876), £6309; pop. (1876), 26,732 souls.

Antá Dhárá.—A pass on the Thibetan frontier of the Kumaun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 35′ N., long. 80° 17′ E. It traverses a ridge to the north of the main Himalayan range, and forms the watershed between the upper feeders of the Ganges from its southern slopes and the tributaries of the Sutlej (Satlej) to the north. The elevation is estimated at 17,500 feet. Snow lies on the pass for eleven months of the year. Distance from Almora, 156 miles north.

Antora.—Seaport in Colába District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 14′ N., and long. 73° 18′ 30″ E. Average annual value of trade for 5 years ending 1873-74—Exports, £98,912; imports, £33,166.

Antravedi.—Shrine on the coast in Gódávari District, Madras; situated near Nursapur, and visited during the five days' festival of the *Kalyánam* by 20,000 pilgrims. Besides being an object of direct pilgrimage, Antravedi forms the last of the seven sacred stations on the Gódávari, at each of which devotees performing the ceremony of Saptaságanayátra have to bathe. The Vasishtha branch of the river falls into the sea at this place.

Anumakonda.—The ancient capital of the Warangul kingdom, established in the Deccan (Dakshin), south of the Gódávari river, by the Kákatiya or Ganapati dynasty, descendants of the old Hastinapur line. At first merely a pastoral chieftain, the founder of the kingdom gradually acquired influence and estates, and organized a sort of government at Anumakonda. The seventh in descent, Kákati Pralaya, assumed the regal style and dignity, and from him the Warangul line received its original name.—(*See* TELINGANA.)

Anúpshahr.—*Tahsíl* of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the right bank of the Ganges. Area, 448 square miles, of which 330 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 213,678; land revenue, £29,352; total revenue, £33,308; rental paid by cultivators, £82,467; incidence of revenue per acre, 2s. 0⅝d.

Anúpshahr. — Municipal town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 28° 21′ N., long. 78° 18′ 55″ E.; area, 123 acres; pop. (1872), 9336, comprising 7190 Hindus and 2146 Muhammadans. Situated on the high

western bank of the Ganges, and exposed to the ravages of the river during inundations. Founded in the reign of Jahángír by the Badgújar Rájá, Anúp Rái, from whom it derives its name. In 1757, Ahmad Sháh placed his cantonments here, from which in 1759 he organized his coalition against the Játs and Marhattás. From 1773 to 1806 Anúpshahr was garrisoned with British troops, afterwards removed to Meerut. The town is much resorted to by Hindu pilgrims, who bathe in the Ganges at certain seasons. The largest assemblage is on the full moon of Kártik, when about 100,000 persons collect together from all quarters. Owing to its central position on a great navigable river, Anúpshahr has great commercial advantages. Chief trade—cotton, grain, timber, safflower, wool, and bamboos. Local manufacture of cloth, blankets, boots, soap, and indigo. *Tahsíli*, post-office, dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, fine mosque, and bridge of boats across the Ganges. Distance from Delhi, 73 miles south-east. Railway station at Rájghát, on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line, 9 miles south-east. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £888; from taxes, £529, or 1s. 1½d. per head of population (9334) within municipal limits.

Aonla.—*Tahsíl* in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 16′ 25″ N., long. 79° 12′ 25″ E.; area, 308 square miles, of which 225 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 196,256. Contains large patches of scrub jungle, and is traversed by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Land revenue, £24,529; total revenue, £27,382; rental paid by cultivators, £42,418; incidence of revenue per acre, 2s. 5⅞d.

Aonla.—Ancient town in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 28° 16′ 25″ N., long. 79° 12′ 25″ E.; area, 128 acres; pop. (1872), 11,153 souls. Situated on a branch of the river Aril, 16 miles south-west of Bareilly. Contains a splendid tomb of the Rohillá leader, Alí Muhammad, who died in 1751. Station on Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway; large bázár, post office, dispensary.

Appecherlú (*Appicherla*).—Town in Bellary District, Madras; pop. (1871), 3069. Large tank.

Appekondu (*Appikonda, Sóméswaradu*).—Village on the sea-coast in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 40′ N., long. 83° 25′ E.; pop. 753. Remarkable for its sacred shrine to Siva as Sóméswaradu, where ceremonies for the removal of baleful horary and stellar conjunctions are supposed to have peculiar efficacy. Numerous pagodas, which once existed in the neighbourhood, have long been buried under sand-drifts. Formerly part of the Chipurapilli estate. The village now forms a separate property, held at an annual rent to Government of £61.

Aráchálúr.—Village in Coimbatore District, Madras; houses, 1498; pop. (1871), 6599.

Arail.—*Tahsíl* of Allahabad District, North-Western Provinces,

lying to the south of the river Jumna (Jamuná). Area, 249 square miles, of which 165 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 120,875 souls; land revenue, £22,606; total revenue, £24,867; rental paid by cultivators, £41,940; incidence of revenue per acre, 2s. 10d.

Arakan.—The most northern of the three Divisions or Provinces of British Burma. Area (exclusive of Hill Tracts), 14,526 square miles; pop. (1872), 484,363. Arakan is a narrow seaboard strip, shut in on the east by the Arakan Yoma Mountains, and extending from the Naaf estuary in the north to the Khwa river in the south. It includes the four Districts of the ARAKAN HILL TRACTS (or Northern Arakan), AKYAB, KYOUK-HPYU (KYOUK-HPYOO), and SANDOWAY. At its annexation in 1826, Rakhaing-pyí-gyí, or the Arakan kingdom, was formed into a Province under the Bengal Government. It then extended as far south as Cape Negrais, and was divided into the four Districts of Akyab, An, Ramrí (Ramree), and Sandoway. When Pegu was annexed, in 1852, the lower portion of Arakan between the Khwa and Cape Negrais was joined to Bassein District. Arakan is administered by a Commissioner and subordinates, whose headquarters are at Akyab town. Gross revenue (1875), £252,883. A full account of the history of Arakan under native rule, and of its annexation by the British, will be found under AKYAB DISTRICT, which contains the capital of the ancient kingdom, and the principal town of the modern Province, and which has formed the theatre of the most important events in its annals.

Arakan.—The ancient capital of Arakan.—*See* MRO-HOUNG.

Arakan Hill Tracts.—A District in Arakan Division, British Burma; not strictly demarcated, but lying between 20° 44′ and 22° 29′ N. lat., and between 92° 44′ and 93° 52′ E. long.; area, from 4000 to 5000 square miles; population in 1875-76, 12,442 souls. Roughly speaking, the Hill Tracts are bounded on the south by Akyab District, and on the west by Chittagong; to the north and east there are no defined boundaries, but unexplored jungle tracts stretch away to Manipur and Independent Burma. The Hill Tracts have been recently renamed as Northern Arakan.

Physical Aspects, etc.—The Arakan Hill Tracts consist of parallel ridges of sandstone, covered with dense forest, and drained by numerous streams. The general run of these ranges is north and south; and wherever the rivers have been forced into an easterly or westerly course, the gaps in the barriers, which formerly dammed up the waters, may still be traced. The scenery at places is very wild and beautiful, but monotonous. The Kúladan (Koladyne), or Yam-pang, is the chief river. Its source is unknown, but its general course (which the wild tribes believe to run for some miles underground) is from north to south. During the dry weather it is navigable 120 miles above Akyab; the tide is felt as far as Kúndaw (Koondaw), 15 miles higher up. Beyond this

point the river is a series of rapids and shallows, and its bed is rocky. The principal tributaries of the Kúladan (Koladyne) are the Tsala (which joins it 25 miles above Dalekmai), the Rala, Kola, Palak, Kan, and (Mí) Mee with the Thamie and Pay or Pí (Pee). The valleys of the Palak and Kan are fertile and open, but now uninhabited. The Mí is a very shallow stream; the Pí is navigable as far as the latitude of the Kúladan police post, and thence flows as a shallow mountain torrent through the country of the Mro and Khamie. The Le-mro rises some distance north of Dalekmai, in the Eastern Yoma, the watershed between Arakan and Upper Burma. After a southerly course of 60 miles it is joined by the Pí from the east, and, turning westward, receives the waters of the O from the north. Its course thence, until it reaches the Bay of Bengal, is very tortuous. The Le-mro is unnavigable; being silted up at its mouth, the tide is felt for only a few miles. In the rains the current is very rapid. Its chief tributaries are the Peng or Wakrien, the Rú (Roo), Wet, and Tseng. The wild animals found in this District include the elephant, rhinoceros, bison, deer, goat, tiger, bear, monkey, etc. The domestic animals are the *gayal*, buffalo, ox, goat, pig, and dog. The timber-trees are ironwood, teak, *kamoung*, *thit-ka-do*, *ye-ma-nay* (Gmelina), *theng-gan-net* (Hopea), *mee-gyoung-ye* (Pentaptera glabra), *ka-gnyeng* (Dipterocarpus levis). Bamboos are very plentiful throughout the Hill Tracts.

History.—Arakanese traditions yield little information concerning the Hill Tracts. The Burmese believe that the hill tribes are related to themselves, and frequent reference is made to immigrations into Burma *viâ* the Kúladan (Koladyne) route. It has been inferred that in remote ages a great Mongoloid horde passed southward from Thibet, and branched out into two streams in or near the Manipur valley. The one proceeded down the Kyeng-dweng and peopled Upper Burma; while the other followed the valley of the Kúladan, driving before it the Yak-ko (*i.e.* Rakshasas, or demons) of Ceylon, an aboriginal race, supposed to be kindred to the surviving Andaman Islanders, said to be at that time cannibals. The more fortunate, or the more hardy, of the immigrants advanced to the coast, and developed a higher stage of civilisation on the fertile maritime plains. The small communities in the hills became isolated, clung to their old habits of life, and preserved the various dialects of the present hill tribes, all of which disclose an affinity with the Burmese language. Their peculiar customs will be treated of in the next paragraph.

Population.—No actual enumeration has yet been made in the Arakan Hill Tracts. The people object to stating the number of their children; but an effort has been made to estimate the population by means of the *khyoung-úks*, or indigenous heads of communities. The population was returned in 1876 at 12,442, almost entirely agricultural. There

were 4 Europeans and 47 Burmese, the rest being hill tribes and Arakanese. The great tribes inhabiting the hills are—(1) The Rakhaing or Khyoung-tha; (2) the Shandú (almost entirely beyond British territory); (3) the Khamie or Rhwe-myí; (4) Anú or Khoungtso; (5) Khyeng; (6) Khyaw or Kuki; (7) the Mro. The number of these (exclusive of the police) make up 12,302 in the returns. (1) The Rakhaings or Khyoung-tha (Sons of the River), 1219 in number, are of Burmese stock, and speak a dialect akin to Arakanese. They are divided into seven clans, all of whom live on the Kúladan, their most northern village being 8 miles above Dalekmai. Some of these clans are said to be descended from the Talaings or Múns of Pegu; one is still called the Múns clan. In manners and customs the Khyoung-tha resemble the Arakanese and Burmese, but, unlike the Burmese, they prefer dingy colours in their dress. They practise tattooing to a small extent. They profess Buddhism, but spirit-worship sways their minds. The books of the Khyoung-tha are written on palm-leaf-shaped pieces of rough, home-made paper; the character was originally Burmese, but now differs considerably from it. (2) The Shandú cannot, strictly speaking, be called one of the District tribes, although some of their clans live within the limit of the survey map. Very little is known about them. Their language is monosyllabic; they inhabit the tract east and north-east of the Blue Mountain, and are always at variance with one another. They are polygamous, and bury their dead; in this latter custom they differ from the other tribes. (3) The Khamies number 7172 souls, and are the chief tribe of the District. Three or four generations ago they lived in the mountains to the north-east, but having quarrelled with the Shandús, their neighbours, they were driven towards the Kúladan. They are divided into clans, each of which keeps apart in villages of its own, under a hereditary *toung-meng*, or hill chief. The word 'Khamie' means 'man' (*homo*); their Burmese name, 'Kwe-myí' (from *khwe*, a dog, and *myí*, tail), was given on account of the peculiarity of their dress, which hangs down behind like a tail. In features, language, and manners, the Khamies resemble the Burmese; in character they are wary and deceitful, but will always trust those of whose fidelity they are once convinced. They, of all the tribes, are most open to improvement, and fully understand the benefits of peace and trade. (4) The Mros, 2162 in number, live on the Mí and on some streams to the south, and are looked upon as an inferior race. Formerly they used to construct a nest, as nearly musket-proof as they could, in some high tree connected with the ground by a bamboo ladder, to which they fled when attacked, cutting down the ladder after their refuge was gained. The establishment of British authority freed the tribe from danger, and the custom has died out. (5) The Anús live in inaccessible villages east of Dalekmai, and on the Tsala river.

Little is known of them except that they dress like the Khamies, but speak a distinct dialect. (6) The Khyengs (2162) are the most widely spread tribe, and inhabit the Arakan Yoma Hills east of the Le-mro river. All acknowledge that they are of the same family, but there is a great difference between the dialects of those brought captive from the east and of those inhabiting the mountain range. The practice of tattooing the women is peculiar to this tribe. Generally speaking, the Khyengs are shy and averse to improvement. Each clan inhabits a tract of forest sufficiently large to supply it with cultivation. Their language, though not understood by the Mro or Khamie tribes, possesses many words in use among the two latter races. (7) The Khyaws inhabit a small village on the Tsala river, and are undoubtedly of the Kuki family, although it is not known how they separated from the main body.

The hill races have many religious beliefs, domestic customs, and laws in common. Their tribal religion is spirit-worship. Its rites chiefly consist of bloody sacrifices to the spirits of the hills and rivers, in order to avert evil. There are two great annual ceremonies for the propitiation of the *Ka-nie* or spirits, viz. at seed-time and before harvest. Another annual feast is held in honour of departed spirits or *hpalaw*. This last custom is followed by the Khamies and Khyoung-thas, but not by the Mros. The ceremony consists in opening the dead-house and placing food and *a-mú* (liquor made from rice) near the ashes of the departed. The prevailing languages are Arakanese and Khamie. The hill tribes have a very ancient system of law, criminal and civil. Their code punishes murder by a fine of two slaves, several spears, swords, and gongs, worth altogether about £60; all other offences or injuries are in like manner punishable by fine only. The one offence not expiable by fine is murder upon a raid. Such murderers, when caught red-handed, are beheaded, and their heads are stuck up in the village. Trial by ordeal is resorted to. The tribes under our authority have, of course, been liberated from the worst features of their ancient code. The houses of all the tribes are constructed of bamboos, and are generally raised 5 or 6 feet from the ground. Villages are built in a rough circle, wherever the ground permits, with the slaughter-posts and a shed for travellers, also used as a forge, in the centre. The chief men have detached buildings for the accommodation of strangers. Sexual intercourse is free before matrimony; divorce is easy. Marriage is a simple contract; the bridegroom makes valuable presents to the girl's parents as dowry, but receives them back in case of divorce arising from the wife's misconduct. The succession to property rests exclusively in the males; a woman cannot inherit, and is not responsible for debt. Fines for offences cannot be paid to a woman, but go to her nearest male relative.

Agriculture, etc. — Cultivation is conducted on the simple nomadic

system known as *toungya* in Burma, and *júm* in India (see AKYAB DISTRICT). The only agricultural implements used are an iron chopper, about 12 inches long and 3 inches broad at the end, and a small iron axe or 'celt,' both fixed into bamboo handles. Seed is sown broadcast. During the rains, cotton and sesamum are planted on the same plot of ground. Cotton and tobacco are the other staple products. The cotton is much sought after by the Arakanese; it is inferior to Egyptian, but yields a larger crop, reported to be better than the ordinary Bengal cotton. Tobacco is cultivated by all the villagers on the Kúladan, and the leaf is of remarkably good quality. It is sown broadcast on alluvial deposits along the banks after the fall of the river. The regularly cultivated area is small as compared with the population. In 1876 it was estimated at only 9½ square miles for a population of 12,442; about 2500 acres of this area were under cotton, and 4000 under tobacco. There are only 15 acres under rice—on the plain near Myouk-toung, at the foot of the hills. The rate of assessment per acre is 12 *ánnás* (1s. 6d.). The nomadic system of tillage by *júm* or jungle-burning still feeds the majority of the people. Rice is grown in the *júm* or *ya* clearings, but no measurements are made or rate per acre fixed, each family being charged 1 rupee (2s.) a year. The number of *ya* patches in 1875-76 was 5196. The women do most of the cultivation, except cutting down the jungle.

Manufactures, etc.—The only manufactures are the weaving of cotton cloth and basketmaking. The blankets woven by the Khamies are generally white, and have thick ribs of cotton run in to make them warm; some are like large Turkish towels. The Mros usually weave blankets with a black and white pattern, showing only on one side. The Khyengs weave them in broad stripes of bright colours, like those worn by the Toung-thús. Long earthenware pots are made by the Khyengs on the Le-mro river; they are covered with cane network, and have a wide ring for the base. In 1868 it was estimated that £8000 worth of produce annually found its way to Akyab, and nearly the whole of this from the Kúladan Khamies. The exports from the Kúladan in 1875-76 were—

	Value. Rs.	A.	P.
Tobacco leaves, 126,428 bundles,	28,462	8	0
Do. roots, 185,000 do.	62	8	0
Do. do. 18 *sers*,	7	0	0
Cotton, 1603 baskets,	3,325	8	0
Sesamum, 3291,	3,004	0	0
Bamboos, 513,442,	3,222	4	0
Plantains, 103,335,	1,121	7	0
Miscellaneous,	5,539	1	6
Coin,[1]	139,541	2	0
Goods unsold,	32,327	5	0
Total,	Rs. 216,612	11	6
	about £21,661.		

[1] On account of the State.

The trade on the Le-mro amounts to £1200, and the principal exports are bamboos and sesamum. The imports are miscellaneous goods. On the Pí river there is a trade to the value of about £800, in tobacco, cotton, sesamum, and miscellaneous goods. The export season for cotton is from December to March. This is sold by the basket of 30 local *sers*, being little more than 40 lbs. The usual price is 2 rupees (4s.) a basket, which would make the price of a *maund* of 80 lbs. about 4 rupees (8s.). The whole of the salt used in the District is brought from Ramrí (Ramree). The price is 1 rupee for from 4 to 5 baskets (12 *sers*). The Shandús obtain their salt by water from the villagers near the frontier, who make very large profits from the trade. All the other trans-frontier tribes are dependent on the British Government for their supplies of salt.

Administration, etc.—A capitation tax was formerly charged on the Mros and Khyengs living near the borders of Akyab District, and on the Khyoung-thas generally. The rates were 2 rupees (4s.) for married men, and 1 rupee (2s.) for widowers; bachelors were exempted. This tax has since been abolished, and tribute has been levied at the rate of 1 rupee per family. The other sources of revenue are the land, timber duty, and fines. A tax of 1 rupee is levied, as in other parts of Arakan, on all ironwood trees felled. The following table shows the amount of revenue realized during 1875-76 as compared with the receipts for 1869-70:—

Items of Revenue.	1875-76.	1869-70.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Land Revenue,	2720	690	2030	...
2. Capitation Tax,	...	1420	...	1420
3. Excise (*Tári* Sale Licence),	...	60	...	60
4. Tribute,	2479	1190	1289	...
5. Miscellaneous,	1610	340	1270	...
Total,	6809 [1]	3700 [2]	4589 [3]	1480 [4]
Net increase,	...	...	3109 [5]	

In 1865, in order to bring the mountainous region in the north of Arakan under better control, and to civilise the wild inhabitants, it was removed from the jurisdiction of Akyab, and erected into a separate District, under the name of the Arakan Hill Tracts, now called Northern Arakan. In 1868 a market was established at Myouk-toung, with a view to encouraging trade with the hill tribes, and of winning them over to more peaceable intercourse with the people of the plains. This market, which was far enough in the hills to attract the hill people, and not too remote for traders from Akyab, has proved a great success. The hill

[1] £680. [2] £370. [3] £458. [4] £148. [5] £310.

produce is disposed of here instead of being, as formerly, exchanged for other goods with itinerant hucksters, who could not be prevented from carrying about arms, gunpowder, etc., for sale or barter. There are two judicial officers in the District, both exercising civil and criminal powers, viz. the Superintendent and the Assistant-Superintendent. On the Kúladan the limit of the real power of control of the Superintendent is 20 miles north of Dalekmai; beyond this there are only one or two villages, and then comes an uninhabited country stretching away northwards. On the Mí his control is only felt a mile or two beyond the police post at the junction of the rivers Thamie and Mí. Until a regular boundary is laid down, the actual limits of the District and of the jurisdiction of the Superintendent cannot be fixed. This official, as *ex officio* superintendent of police, directs a force 256 strong, of whom 81 are Gúrkhas or Tipperahs, 50 Khamies, 32 Manipuris, 25 Rájbansis, and the remainder chiefly Arakanese and local tribesmen; 100 of them are armed with muzzle-loading cavalry carbines, the remainder have the old Brown Bess. The police are posted at ten stations, of which eight are stockaded with upright posts, 6 feet apart, and *chevaux-de-frise* of sharpened bamboos. The inspectors of police are Europeans, and 76 of the men belong to the Hill Tracts. They constitute a *quasi*-military force, whose duty is to repel raids from outside, and keep order amongst the tribes within our administrative boundary. The whole length of the north-east frontier from Dalekmai to Prengwa is regularly patrolled once a week during the raiding months. It requires strong and hardy men to stand the climate and the work incidental to the police of these hills, and the annual admissions to hospital average 84 per cent. a year of the total strength. In 1875 the stockade at Dalekmai was removed from the bank of the river to the top of a small neighbouring hill. Guard-houses have recently been built at Tsamí, and on the Kan and Pí rivers. The total number of persons treated in 1875 at the dispensary at headquarters was 1441, of whom 277 were in-patients, chiefly policemen.

Climate.—Fevers are very prevalent; but a late Superintendent writes that the deadliness of the climate has been overstated. He attributes the hill fever to the severe changes of temperature rather than to malaria. The dangerous months are April, May, and June; April is sultry, and May and June are the beginning of the rains. The people are as a rule healthy, but subject to skin diseases. What tells most on Europeans is want of proper food. Beef and mutton cannot be procured. The Arakanese lowlanders do not stand the climate well, and it is fatal to most Burmese. From December to March the prevailing wind is north, and during the monsoon south or south-west.

Arakan Yoma, or **Roma.**—A range of hills forming the eastern

boundary of Bengal, which extend from the south-eastern extremity of Sylhet and Cachar into Arakan in British Burma, and divide it from Ava. Lat. 15° 56′ to 21° 56′ N., long. 93° 28′ to 94° 18′ E. These mountains are the back-bone, as it were, of Burma, and constitute its watershed. In AKYAB DISTRICT the Arakan Hills are steep and throw out numerous spurs. They can be crossed only by regular passes, the chief being the AENG PASS. Their height varies from 3000 to 4000 feet; the loftiest peak, Blue Mountain, is 7100 feet above the level of the sea. For an account of the various tribes inhabiting these mountains, see ARAKAN HILL TRACTS.

Aral River.—Lat. 26° 22′ to 26° 27′ N., long. 67° 47′ to 67° 53′ E. One of the channels by which Lake Manchhar (in Kurrachee District) discharges its water into the Indus; 12 miles long, and navigable throughout. With the Narra and Lake Manchhar, the Aral forms a continuous waterway, running for above 100 miles nearly parallel to the Indus; and as the current is at all times very moderate, this channel is more frequented during the flood season than the main stream.

Arán River.—Lat. 19° 54′ to 20° 12′ N., long. 77° 13′ to 78° 15′ E. Rises in the hills north of Básim District, Berar; course about 100 miles. Drains more than half the west portion of Wún District; receives the Arna river (64 miles in length); and forms the most important tributary of the Penganga river, which it joins at Chinta. The Arán valley is from 6 to 14 miles wide; the Arna valley from 8 to 12.

Arang.—Town, Raipur District, Central Provinces; situated on the Mahánadí river. Pop. (1870), 2267, dwelling in 1044 houses. Formerly the seat of a *tahsíldár's* court, which was removed to Raipur town in 1863. It still contains a large number of commercial residents, and a considerable trade in metal vessels is carried on. Formerly one of the seats of the Haihai Bansí Rájput dynasty, with ruins of temples and old tanks, and extensive remains of ancient brick buildings north of the present town, which is surrounded by immense groves of mango trees.

Araráj.—Village in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 33′ 30″ N., long. 84° 42′ 15″ E. About a mile south-west is a monolith of polished granite, on which are cut, in well-preserved letters, portions of Asoka's edicts; the pillar is 36½ feet high; diameter at the base, 41·8 inches, at the top, 37·6 inches.

Arariyá.—Subdivision of Purniah District, Bengal, lying between 25° 56′ 15″ and 26° 27′ N. lat., and between 87° 1′ 30″ and 87° 44′ 45″ E. long.; area, 1045 square miles. Pop. (1872), 377,055—namely, Hindus, 267,963; Muhammadans, 108,216; Christians, 48; others, 828. Average density of the population, 361 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, ·65,—of houses, 64; number of persons per village, 554,—per house, 5·6. The Subdivision is divided into three

thánás. In 1870-71 there was one magisterial and revenue court, and the total police force consisted of 1373 officers and men. The total cost of administration in that year was £6384.

Arariyá.—A village on the Panár river, in Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 9′ 15″ N., long. 87° 32′ 56″ E.; pop. (1872), 1498; number of houses, 311. It contains a middle-class vernacular and a primary school. Distance from Purniah town, 30 miles north, and from Basantpur, 4 miles east.

Arasalár (*Arasalaiár*, 'The Pipál-leaf River').—An estuary of the Cauvery (Káveri) in Tanjore District, Madras. It branches, in lat. 10° 56′ N., long. 79° 22′ E., from the right bank of the main stream, and, after flowing nearly due east for 40 miles through a rich plain, falls into the sea at Karikal (lat. 10° 55′ N., long. 79° 56′ E.). It irrigates 60,264 acres, yielding an annual revenue of £31,675.

Aravá Kurichí.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 46° 30″ N., long. 77° 57′ E.; houses, 2827; pop. (1871), 10,764, one-half being Muhammadans of the Labhay sect. Situated 19 miles south-west of Karur, on the road from that station to Dindigul. It possesses a considerable trade, carried on almost exclusively by the Labhay traders, whose influence is remarkable when it is remembered that Muhammadans form only 2 per cent. of the District population. A fort, built here by the Mysore Rájá, and known to the Muhammadans as Bijamangal, was on three occasions—1768, 1783, and 1790—forcibly occupied by British troops. On the last occasion the fortifications were destroyed, and the site made over to the Poligar of Andipatti. Station of a deputy *tahsíldár.*

Aravalli Hills.—A range of mountains running for 300 miles in a north-easterly direction through the Rájputána States and the British District of Ajmere-Mhairwára, situated between lat. 25° and 26° 30′ N., and between long. 73° 20′ and 75° E. They consist of a series of ridges and peaks, with a breadth varying from 6 to 60 miles, and an average elevation of 1000 to 3000 feet. Their highest point is Mount ABU, 5650 feet, an isolated outlier at the south-western extremity of the range. The geology belongs to the primitive formation—granite, compact dark-blue slate, gneiss, and sienite. Colonel Tod remarks upon the dazzling white effect of the peaks—an effect produced, not by snow, as among the Himalaya, but by enormous masses of vitreous rose-coloured quartz. On the north, their drainage forms the Luni and Sakhi rivers, which fall into the Runn of Cutch (Kachchh). To the south, the drainage supplies two distinct river systems, one of which debouches in comparatively small streams on the Gulf of Cambay, while the other unites to form the Chambal river, a great southern tributary of the Jumna (Jamuná), flowing thence *viâ* the Ganges into the Bay of Bengal on the other side of India.

The Aravalli Hills are for the most part bare of cultivation, and even of jungle. Many of them are mere heaps of sand and stone; others consist of huge masses of quartz piled upon each other. The valleys between the ridges are generally sandy deserts, with an occasional oasis of cultivation. At long intervals, however, a fertile tract marks some great natural line of drainage, and in such a valley AJMERE CITY, with its lake, stands conspicuous. The hills are inhabited by a very sparse population of Mhairs, an aboriginal race. (*See* AJMERE-MHAIRWARA.) The main range sends off rocky ridges in a north-easterly direction, which from time to time reappear in the form of isolated hills and broken rocky elevations nearly as far as Delhi.

Arázi.—Municipality in Kurrachee District, Sind. Lat. 26° 28′ N., long. 67° 49′ E.; pop. (1872), 2039, mainly agricultural (Muhammadans, 1301, chiefly Sayyids and Chandias; Hindus, 738, mainly Bráhmans and Lohános). Municipal revenue in 1873-74, £120; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head.

Arcot, North.—A British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 12° 21′ and 14° 10′ 45″ N. lat., and between 78° 14′ 45″ and 80° 13′ E. long.; area, 7139 square miles; population in 1871, 2,015,278. Mysore bounds it on the west, and on the other three sides lie British Districts—Cuddapah and Nellore on the north, Salem on the south, and Chingleput (Chengalpat) on the east.

Physical Aspects.—The northern and western portions of the District are hilly and picturesque; the southern and eastern, as a rule, flat and uninteresting. The range of the Eastern Ghâts traverses it from south-west to north-east, throwing out spurs on their southern side, and the Nagari Hills run across the northern corner. In the extreme south-east the Jawádi range impinges on the District, its peaks attaining sometimes a height of 3000 feet, covered in part with dense and valuable forest. The Eastern Ghâts and the Jawádis are of gneissic or metamorphic formation, made up to a great extent of bare, rounded rock-masses, with smooth, loose boulders scattered about. In the north-eastern formation, conglomerates and sandstones prevail; and the precipitous cliffs, rising sheer from the plains, present every appearance of volcanic upheaval. Iron and copper are found in some abundance, and as gold has been obtained in Mysore within a few miles of the District frontier, it is probable that it exists in North Arcot also. Coal occurs nowhere, but lime and excellent building stone abound. The chief river is the Pálár. It enters the District in the south-west, and, after a preliminary deflection northwards on meeting the rise of the Jawádi Hills, assumes an easterly direction to the sea. It receives on its way two important affluents, the Cheyair and the Poiny. For almost the whole year the river courses are dry, the water sinking into the deep sand of their beds. Channels, however, are cut into the sand,

and the underflow of water thus tapped is carried off for irrigation. This supply never fails. The District forests aggregate an area of about 1000 square miles, of which nearly one-half belong to private owners. Of the remainder, about one-half are 'local forests;' and the actual imperial revenue from this source is only £400 a year. One reason for this comparatively small income is that the imperial forests are as yet very carefully conserved, nothing being taken from them beyond the absolute requirements of the neighbourhood. The fisheries, although fish forms a chief item in the food supply, are financially unimportant. The fauna of the District includes the elephant, bison, wild buffalo, tiger, leopard, bear, hyena, several species of deer and boar. For the destruction of animals dangerous to human life, rewards to the extent of £172 are annually given, and the average number of deaths from wild beasts and snakes during 1873-74-75 was 154.

History.—The history of the District previous to British occupation belongs to the CARNATIC and MYSORE. In 1792, after the termination of the Mysore war, the portion of the present District lying above the Gháts was ceded to the British. It was appended to the Bárá-mahál tract, and administered conjointly with the western estates of Venkatagiri, Sydápúr, Kálahasti (Calastri), and Karvaitnagar. In 1801, the Carnatic was ceded to the British by the Nawáb; and the portion of this territory lying north of the Pálár river was, together with the above estates, formed into the District then called the Northern Division of Arcot, and placed under the Kistnagiri Collector. In 1808, the *táluks* south of the Pálár were added to the District, Kistnagiri removed from it, and the estates of Venkatagiri and Sydápúr transferred to Nellore. Since that year the only alteration in the area of the District has been the addition of the Panganúr estate. When the Carnatic was first acquired, there were in all twelve *polliems* or tributary estates—Naraganti, Kallúr, Karkambadi, Krishnapúrám, Tumba, Bungari, Pulicherla, Pólúr, Mogarál, Pakála, Gedragunta, and Gudipati. In 1803, all of these, with the exception of the last, rebelled, and a military force had to be employed to reduce them to submission. Four *polliems*—Pólúr, Mogarál, Pakála, and Gedragunta—were resumed by Government, and the rest, Gudipati excepted, were for many years held under attachment. Several towns in the District, notably ARCOT, VELLORE, and CHENDRAGIRI, have interesting historical associations, dating from the negotiations of 1640 with the Bijapur king for permission to erect a factory at 'Madraspatam' within his territories.

Population.—A Census of the District has been taken quinquennially since 1850; but the first trustworthy results were obtained in 1871. This enumeration disclosed a total of 329,844 houses (15,744 being returned as uninhabited), and a total population of 2,015,278 souls (or 6·4 inmates per house), 1,020,678 being males and 994,600 females.

Classified according to religion, 1,913,020, or 94 per cent., are Hindus; 86,741, or 4·3 per cent., Muhammadans; native Christians, 6316; European and Eurasian Christians, 1312. The Hindus, classified according to worship, show 52 per cent. Vishnavites and 47 per cent. Sivaites. The chief agricultural castes, making more than half the population, are the Vallálas, Kepus, Reddis, Kammas, Vunnea or Pally, Valámas, Balijas, Kavarays, Muttárasas, Yekaris; the chief pastoral tribes, the Gollas and Idayars. Artificers in metals, wood, and stone belong mostly to the Kumsala caste. The Muhammadans, mainly of the Suni sect, are most numerous about Arcot town, Vellore, and Gudiattam, and engage indifferently in trade and agriculture, a large number being also employed in subordinate Government posts. The Labhays, a class of *quasi* Muhammadans, are cultivators and traders. The Jains and Buddhists, numbering 7889, are most numerous in the southern *táluks;* as a rule, they hold land and are well off. The Málas or *pariahs* amount to about 20 per cent. of the total population, and are all agricultural labourers of the poorest class. Wandering tribes are numerous, the chief being the Brinjáras, Lumbadis, Sugalis, Bhattus, and Dommeras. They travel from place to place, professing to subsist on the produce of the herds which they drive about, but eking out a livelihood by theft. The forests and hills are inhabited by aboriginal tribes—Irulas, Yerikalis, Yánádis, and Malayális. These collect the jungle produce,—honey, bees-wax, barks, roots, soap-nuts, etc.,—for barter with the people of the plains. They are identified in origin with the Tamil cultivating castes of the plains, but the unhealthy nature of the hills they inhabit has greatly deteriorated the race. The Christians are chiefly Roman Catholics, although the American, Danish Lutheran, and Scotch Church missions have stations in the District. Some agricultural villages established by the American mission appear to be thriving. Towns with a population over 2000 number 102, the chief being Vellore, with 37,969 inhabitants; Wállájápét, 12,034; Arcot, 10,988; Gudiattam, 10,804; and Tripalty (Tirupatti), 10,423. Twenty-three towns have a population between 3000 and 5000, and seven between 5000 and 10,000. The total population of these 102 towns amounts to about 400,000, or one-fifth of the inhabitants of the District. The population is therefore mainly rural. The ordinary agriculturist is strongly attached to his native village, and rarely leaves it except to attend some religious festival. The railway has worked very considerable changes, and, by raising the value of agricultural produce, has materially improved the condition of the cultivating class along the line. In the towns, stone houses are not uncommon; but all the villagers, and the vast majority of the urban population, live in mud buildings. The household furniture of the ordinary cultivator, herdsman, artisan, and small trader classes, consists merely of a bed of wooden planks (*visapalaka*), a bench, and a box or two.

Agriculture.—The land under cultivation is reported at 208,268 acres, or only 5 per cent. of the District area. Most of the individual holdings are very small, paying less than £2, 10s. per annum. A cultivator paying more than that may be called a moderately large holder, while those paying more than £10 per annum are few in number, and wealthy. The average rates of assessment are 3s. per acre of 'dry,' and 6s. per acre of 'wet' land; the average out-turn per season, 900 and 1200 lbs. of grain respectively, valued in ordinary years at £2, 5s. to £3. Leaving out of calculation the initial outlay in cattle, the profits derivable from a holding of 5 acres average from 16s. to £1 per *mensem.* The peasant's implements—plough, leveller, water-bucket, and smaller articles—cost in all about £1, 5s.; and manure, which is generally applied at the rate of 14 loads per acre of 'wet,' and 20 loads per acre of 'dry' land, varies in price from 2d. to 6d. per load. One pair of bullocks suffices for the cultivation of 3 acres, and an ordinary yoke of cattle costs about £3; buffaloes are somewhat cheaper. The chief grain crops of the District are paddy, *rágí, cholam,*—the three staples of food with the bulk of the population,—*kumbu, varagu, karamani,* millet, *sáma, sajja, jonna,* gram, *gingelli, ulandu, mochakotti,* and *dál,* mostly sown in June, July, and August, and reaped about four months later: *cholam* is sown in April, *jonna* in January, and gram in September. Hemp, cotton, sugar-cane, betel, indigo, onions, tobacco, chillies, plantains, and turmeric are all largely cultivated. No regular rotation of crops appears to be observed. From *rágí* the people make a porridge (*sankati*), which constitutes the ordinary food of the masses. Rice, though sometimes mixed as a luxury with the cheaper grains, is eaten as a regular meal only by the wealthy. The wholesale prices of food grains in 1860 were as follows:—Paddy, first sort, £11, 8s. per *garce* of 9257 lbs., or 2s. 9d. per cwt., second sort, 2s. 6d. per cwt.; *cholam,* 4s. 3d. per cwt.; *kambu,* 3s. 8d. per cwt.; gram, 4s. 8d. per cwt.; *rágí,* 3s. 6d. per cwt.; *varagu,* 2s. 1½d. per cwt. Live-stock varies in value in different parts of the District, but on the average a pony costs from £1 to £1, 10s.; a donkey, from 16s. to £1; a sheep, from 4s. to 8s.; a goat, from 3s. to 6s.; a pig, from 6s. to 10s.; fowls, 6d. to 10d. each; and ducks, 7d. to 9d. Male labourers earn from 3d. to 4d. per diem, and females about half as much. The wages of a working goldsmith or blacksmith are 9d. a day; of a carpenter or bricklayer, 9d. to 1s. The rate of interest for money lent on personal security varies from 12 to 36 per cent. per annum; on the security of personal goods it averages 12 per cent., and with a lien upon crops, 18 per cent. From 6 to 8 per cent. is considered a fair return for money invested in land.

Natural Calamities.—Disastrous floods are almost unknown. On May 2, 1872, a cyclone visited the District, and caused, after a fall of 13·80 inches of rain, an overflow of the tanks above the town of Vellore

Several hundred lives were lost in the inundation which resulted, and one suburb was entirely swept away. Among recent famines the most notable, until the disastrous year of 1876-77, was that of 1866. Owing to continuous drought the crops failed, and relief works were kept open by Government till the close of 1868. During the famine of 1877, relief measures on a still larger scale were resorted to; and the utmost efforts of Government were required to avert the depopulation of the country. The railway which traverses the District protects it to some extent; but North Arcot enjoys no facilities for the construction of canals, or other irrigation works, and those already in existence altogether depend upon the local rainfall.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District consists of the export of food grains and molasses, the import of cloth, and a transit trade in cotton. The exports are in excess of the imports. Weaving forms the chief industry, but the carpets of Wállájápét, the reed mats of Wandiwash, the brass work and wood carving of Tripalty (Tirupatti), the hardware of Punganúr, and the glass beads of Kálahasti (Calastri), are noteworthy specialities of the District. The manufacturers generally work in their own premises on their own account, and their condition is somewhat better on the average than that of the agriculturists. There are no important District fairs, but nearly every town has its weekly market for the exchange of local products. Accumulations of money are for the most part invested in ornaments of gold or silver, and very rarely indeed in the improvement of land. The railway runs for 155 miles through the District, the local returns for 1875 showing a passenger traffic of 650,829 persons, and in goods 105,245 tons. There are altogether 776 miles of road, maintained at an annual cost of £9480. Two good passes—the Moghili and Symgunta—lead up from the plains to the Mysore plateau; the one from Chittúr, the other from Gudiattam. The old military road to Bangalore was formerly carried through Ambúr and over the Naikaneri Pass, but owing to its difficulties during the rains this route has now been abandoned. The Anna Dánam (rice-giving) *choultry* at Sholingarh, where large numbers of pilgrims are regularly fed, is the only religious institution individually remarkable. Similar charities on a smaller scale are numerous. The chief religious gatherings are those held annually at TRIPALTY, largely attended by visitors from Northern India and Marhattás. An important annual assemblage also takes place at Kálahasti (Calastri).

Administration. — The District comprises 9 *táluks* — Chandragiri, Chittúr, Palmanair, Gudiattam, Wállájá, Arcot, Vellore, Polúr, and Wandiwash; and 13 estates—Kálahasti (Calastri), Karvaitnagar, Panganúr, and Kangandi (*zamíndárís*), Arni (*jágír*), Naraganti, Gudipati, Bungari, Tumba, Pulicherla, Kallúr, Karkambadi, and Krishnapúram (*polliems*),—the whole aggregating 4,568,960 acres. Of this area, 208,268 acres are

under cultivation, 974,956 cultivable, and 3,385,736, or about three-fourths of the whole, irreclaimable waste. The total District revenue amounted in 1870-71 to £214,866, derived as follows:—Land revenue, £131,189; rent of permanently settled estates, £36,526; *abkárí*, £25,610; stamps, £12,949; licence and income tax, £8590. The total expenditure amounted to £20,600, distributed under the following heads:—Land revenue collection, £19,818; *abkárí*, £12; stamps, £434; income tax, £335. The *zamíndárí* estates upon the rent roll of the District aggregated a revenue of £50,503, Kálahasti (Calastri) and Karvaitnagar together returning £37,048. A survey and classification of the District was made in 1805 for revenue purposes, and the accounts then prepared—known as the *pymaish*—have been the basis of all subsequent assessments. In 1808, a three years' lease system was introduced, but, the experiment proving unsuccessful, the old plan of settling with the cultivators direct was reverted to in 1821. But the land had been over-assessed, and in 1857 reduced rates were promulgated. The new assessment, known as the *hál tirva*, diminished the rates by 30 to 40 per cent. on 'wet,' and from 20 to 30 on 'dry' lands. In 1864, further concessions with regard to waste lands were allowed. In Government *táluks* the cultivator possesses a permanent right of occupation so long as he discharges the revenue; on other estates he is a tenant-at-will. Many of the larger landholders, and all the Bráhman proprietors, sublet their holdings upon temporary leases, sometimes at money rents, more often for a share (usually about two-fifths) of the produce. There are at present 17 magisterial courts, and 12 civil and revenue courts. Exclusive of village watchmen, the police number 1188 officers and men, in the proportion of 1 constable to every 6 square miles and every 1700 of the inhabitants. Their cost of maintenance in 1875 was £15,000, or about 2d. per head of the population. Arrests during the year numbered 16,013, resulting in 6040 convictions. The daily average of prisoners in jail between the years 1860-70 was 1031, the annual cost per head being £7, 7s.; the earnings of the prisoners by jail labour were considerable. For the purposes of public education the District was divided, in 1872, into two circles, the Chittúr and Vellore. These contain together 596 schools under official supervision, with 17,015 scholars. The first Government schools were opened in 1826, but it was not until 1856 that the *zilá* schools, giving education of a higher standard, were opened. In 1868 the result-grant system was extended to all the lower-class schools, and in 1872 the administration of public instruction was made over to the Local Fund Boards, established in that year. The post office in 1870-71 carried 1,268,472 letters, 36,309 newspapers, 3415 parcels, and 10,292 books.

Medical Aspects.—Malarious fever may be considered endemic in

many parts of the District. It increases in severity immediately after the rainy season. Leprosy is common, and small-pox so prevalent annually from February to May, that a very large percentage of the population bear the marks of attack. In every year from 1869 to 1873 inclusive, cholera prevailed in an epidemic form; in 1876 there was another outbreak. Dengue was almost universal from September 1872 to January 1873. Cattle-disease, the form known as 'foot-and-mouth disease,' has been frequently epidemic. The mortuary returns for the District during the years 1871–1875 inclusive, give an average mortality of 42,692, or 21 per thousand of the population. The average number of births during the same period was 44,823; being, males, 22,979, and females, 21,844. The mean monthly temperature, calculating on the returns for 1868-69, ranges from 81° to 95° F.; the maximum recorded being 104° for May, the minimum 74° for January. The annual rainfall averages 38·9 inches, ranging from 35·72 in Palmanair to 46·8 in Wandiwash.

Arcot.—A *táluk* in North Arcot District, Madras. Houses, 21,623; pop. (1871), 157,391, being 78,564 males and 78,827 females. Classified according to religion, there were in 1871—Hindus, 147,052, being 86,529 Shivas, 60,206 Vaishnavs, and 266 Lingayats; Muhammadans, 9022, being 8618 Sunis and 301 Shias; Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics, — 4 Eurasians, 201 natives, — 205; Buddhists and Jains, 1112. Chief town, Arcot.

Arcot (*Aru-kadu*, '*six deserts*'—Tamil, *Arkat*, *Arucati*—Hamilton, *Arcati*—the *Regia Sori* of Ptolemy).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 55′ 23″ N., long. 79° 24′ 14″ E.; houses, 2068; pop. (1871), 10,988, of whom 22 per cent. are Muhammadans. Lies 65 miles from Madras, and 5 from the Arcot Railway Station, on the right bank of the Pálár. Headquarters of the *táluk*, containing sub-magistrate's and *munsif's* courts, post office, sub-jail, and Government school. Formerly the capital of the Nawábs of the Carnatic, but now of small importance. Beyond some exportation of rice to the west coast, there is no trade; and, the manufacture of bangles excepted, the town possesses no special industry. Historically, Arcot is of great interest, but few traces of its former power remain. In 1712, in order to facilitate operations against Mysore, Saadat-ullá-Khán, commanding the Delhi forces that had captured Gingi, transferred his headquarters to Arcot. For the twenty years of his power, and during the reign of his successor Dost Alí, it remained the seat of government. But in 1740, the Marhattá army of Hojí Bhonsla overran the District; Dost Alí was killed in battle, and Arcot became the centre of the strife. Sabdar Alí, who succeeded Dost Alí, was murdered in 1742; and his successor, Sayyid Muhammad, shared the same fate in 1744. During the next seven years Arcot changed hands as many times; but after its brilliant capture

and defence by Clive, immortalized in Macaulay's Essay, an English garrison occupied the fort in 1751. In 1758, Arcot was surrendered to the French, under Lally Tollendal; and two efforts made in the following year to regain possession failed. In 1760, however, Colonel Coote laid siege to the fort, and after a bombardment of seven days took it. For the next twenty years it remained in the hands of the Nawáb Muhammad Alí, the ally of the British; but when in 1780 the Mysore war extended to the District, Arcot was surrendered to Haidar Alí, who held it till 1783. Tippu Sultán succeeded to Haidar's conquests, and after destroying the fortifications abandoned it. In the cession of the Carnatic to the English in 1801, Arcot was included; but the descendants of the Nawáb (styled the 'Prince of the Carnatic') still hold property in the neighbourhood of the town. The palace is now a ruin, and of the fort hardly a trace remains. The European station, RANIPET, is on the left bank of the Pálár, 3 miles from the railway station. The railway returns for 1875 showed a passenger traffic of 157,830 persons, and in goods, 22,866 tons, yielding a revenue of £24,813.

Arcot, South.—A British District in the Presidency of Madras, lying between 11° 10′ 30″ and 12° 38′ 30″ N. lat., and between 78° 33′ 30″ and 80° 2′ 15″ E. long.; area, 4873 square miles; population in 1871, 1,755,817 souls. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Chingleput and North Arcot, on the east by the Bay of Bengal, on the south by the District of Trichinopoly, and on the west by that of Salem.

Physical Aspects.—Although traversed along its western frontier by the Kalráyan range, averaging 3500 feet in height, and on its north-western boundary having the Jawádi group, the District of South Arcot itself contains no important mountain chain. From the ranges above mentioned, small rocky spurs, covered with stunted jungle, straggle down into the north and western portions, but for the rest the District presents a flat surface. On the sea-coast a few sand ridges break this flatness, and near Pondicherri and Cuddalore high lands of the laterite formation interrupt the general level; but the only elevation sufficiently important to form a feature of the District landscape is the Trinomalai Hill, an isolated mass, with a fine peak and long sloping sides covered with jungle, rising to a height of 2669 feet. Three rivers are navigable throughout the year, the Coleroon, Vellár, and Parávanár, but only for short distances of their length. The Coleroon, after a course in the District of 36 miles along the south-eastern frontier, debouches into the bay about 3 miles south of Porto Novo. The Vellár flows through the District for 82 miles, receiving on its way the waters of the Manimukta-nadi, and enters the sea at Porto Novo. Both rivers are affected by the tide for a distance of about 6 miles. Other

streams of importance are the Gaddilam (or Garuda-nadi), rising in the Yegel tank, and, after a course of 59 miles, emptying itself into the sea about a mile north of Cuddalore; the Punniar, rising in the Mysore plateau, and, after a course of 75 miles, running into the bay 3 miles north of Cuddalore; and the Gingi, which rises in the Náranamangalam tank, and after receiving the waters of the Tondayár and Pámbaiyár, flows into the sea by two mouths near Ariankupam and Chinna Virampét. The forest reserves of the District aggregate 42,000 acres, and there are besides considerable tracts of unreserved jungle lands, to which vast herds of cattle are annually driven to graze, chiefly from Tanjore. The fauna of the District includes among the mammals the elephant, tiger, bear, cheetah, *sámbhar* and other deer, hyena, wild dog, boar, etc. During the years 1872-76, rewards to the amount of £36 were distributed for the destruction of animals dangerous to human life: the average annual mortality from snakes and wild beasts during those years was 242. Among the birds may be mentioned the peacock, florican, many other species of game birds, and a great variety of water-fowl. The principal saltwater fish are the pomfret, sole, *sír*, whiting, *rúbál*, and *válai* (a silurus); in the backwaters are found the mullet and eel. The rivers and tanks yield the *marral*, *válai*, *shelkandai*, and other carps. Oysters are obtained from the backwater.

History.—The English connection with the District dates from 1674, when the Khán of Gingi invited the President of Fort St. George to make a settlement in his country. Negotiations were opened, but no definite action was taken until 1682, when a trading station was formed at Cuddalore. This proved a failure, but a few months later a second settlement was made at Conimeer (Kunimedu), about 10 miles north of Pondicherri. In 1683, the Cuddalore station was reoccupied, and a branch settlement opened at Porto Novo, the deed of grant for all three being received in the following year from Harji Rájá, Governor of Gingi. Four years later, the Company purchased from the Marhattás the site of Fort St. David (on the coast close to Cuddalore) with the neighbouring villages, and abandoned the settlement of Conimeer. The little territory was augmented in 1750 by a grant from Nawáb Muhammad Alí of two villages forming the *jágír* of Chinnamanaik. In the wars of the Carnatic, South Arcot, more especially CUDDALORE, played a conspicuous part. In 1758, Fort St. David and Cuddalore were captured by the French, and the fort was levelled to the ground; but two years later, Sir Eyre Coote, advancing on Pondicherri after the battle of Wandiwash, reoccupied Cuddalore, the French evacuating Fort St. David on his approach. In 1782, the French and Tippu Sultán regained possession of the town, and held it for three years, when it was finally restored, Pondicherri (then in British hands) being at the same time surrendered to the French. On the capture of Pondicherri, in 1793,

the French Districts were placed under the Resident of Cuddalore, but three years later were incorporated with that tract into a revenue collectorate. In 1801, the *subah* of Arcot passed into the Company's possession, with the rest of the Carnatic, and all that portion lying between the Pálár and Vellár rivers was erected into a District named the Southern Division of Arcot. Since that date numerous changes of area have occurred, the most important being the restoration of Pondicherri to France in 1816; the addition, in 1805, of the Mannargudi and Chidamburam tracts; the transfer of three of the northern *táluks* to the Chittúr and Chingleput Districts in 1808; and of Chetpút to North Arcot in 1859. The first court of justice established in the District was that of the Choultry Justices in 1691, sitting alternately at Cuddalore and Fort St. David (Devanapatnam). More than a century elapsed before a more elaborate system was required. In 1802, a *zilá* court, with its headquarters at Virudáchalam, was established, and courts of native commissioners were erected for the trial of small causes. Sub-judges' courts were opened in 1816 at Cuddalore, Villupuram, Gingi, and Srimushnam, but four years later, the judicial administration of the District was transferred to the courts of Chingleput. In 1843, local courts of the first class were again established; the Civil and Sessions Court at Cuddalore, then erected, being the present District and Sessions Court. Between the years 1843 and 1876 numerous sub-courts have been opened, the total number now standing at 33, with 11 others for the trial of rent and revenue cases only.

Population.—The first Census was taken in 1822, and there have been eight subsequent attempts at enumeration. The returns for 1871 form, however, the only trustworthy basis of calculation. According to these, the number of houses was 228,761, and the total population is 1,755,817 souls,—males, 885,922, and females, 869,895; number of inmates per house, 7·69. Classified according to religion, there are—Hindus, 1,676,462, or 95·5 per cent. of the whole; Muhammadans, 44,567, or 2·5 per cent.; Christians, 30,817; Jains and Buddhists, 3861; 'others,' 110. The Hindus, subdivided according to worship, show 52 per cent. Sivaites, and 47 per cent. Vishnuvites. Classified according to occupation (adult males only), 348,794, or 61·2 per cent. of the total, are agricultural; 49,033, or 8·6 per cent., industrial; 22,007, or 3·9, commercial; 15,687, or 2·7, professional; 16,491, or 2·9, domestic; and 117,868, or 20·7 per cent., 'non-productive.' Classified according to castes, the *vallálas* (cultivators) represent 14·3 of the total population; the *vannians* (landholding cultivators), 31·3; the *pariahs* (labourers and menials), 26 per cent. The Chetties (traders), who number 34,439, are the wealthiest caste; the Bráhmans, 31,984, are landholders, and occupy the majority of official posts. The Koravars are a thieving tribe, wandering about with herds of swine, on

which and by basket-weaving they profess to subsist. In the hilly tracts are found the Malayális, Irulars, and Villiyars; the first supporting themselves by cultivating forest patches, the second by the sale of jungle produce (honey, wax, gall-nuts, and bark), and the third by the chase. The Christians, nearly all *pariahs*, are divided between Roman Catholics, 29,455, and Protestants—converted by the Danish, Leipzig, S. P. G., and American missions—1839. Three villages established by the American mission appear to be thriving. The first Roman Catholic mission was established in 1640; in 1716 the Danish mission followed, but a century elapsed before any of the others made settlements. Among the Muhammadans of Trivánanallúr is a small colony returning themselves as Wahábis. Ninety-three towns have a population over 2000,—the chief being Cuddalore, with 40,460 inhabitants; Chidamburam, 15,519; Porto Novo, 7182; Trinomalai, 9312; Panroti, 6962; and Valavanúr, 7061. The population is mainly rural, but a tendency to gather into towns and seats of industry is said to be becoming apparent. During the last twenty years the material condition of the people has improved. But the hut of the ordinary peasant is still of mud, without windows; its furniture some pieces of matting to sleep on, two or three brass dishes, and a few earthen pots for cooking. His clothing is of two pieces—one for the head, the other for the waist. Though the expenses of a family of five persons do not exceed 9s. a month, he cannot, as a rule, support his household without borrowing. Waste land being abundant in the Trinomalai *táluk*, a considerable immigration goes on, the immigrants being chiefly Reddis, Christians, and other *pariahs*. The same classes emigrate, to the average number of 150 annually, to the West Indies and Reunion, under a system of supervision and protection carried out by the Indian Government.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3,159,045 acres, 1,314,798 are under cultivation. Of the acreage under cultivation, rice occupies 420,000 acres, *kambu* (Eleusine stricta) 222,000, *varagu* (Paspalum frumentaceum) 207,000, *ragi* (Eleusine coracana) 148,000, indigo 109,000, oil-seeds 81,000, cotton 46,000, *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare) 25,000, pulses 25,000, *sami* (millet) 5000, tobacco 2000, plantains 2000, sugar-cane 3000, and fruit orchards 23,000 acres. Forty varieties of rice, *samba* and *kár* being the chief, are cultivated. The ground is always highly irrigated for this crop. Eight varieties of *kambu*, the chief 'dry' crop of the District, and as many more of *cholam*, are grown. Indigo is sown in November and cut in March; cotton is sown in August and gathered in April. The prevailing rates of assessment range from 17s. to 2s. 3d. per acre of 'wet,' and from 10s. 6d. to 1s. 6d. per acre of 'dry' land; the average rate being 10s. 6d. for the former, and 3s. 5d. for the latter. The cultivator resorts to irrigation wherever possible, for which he pays, if his land is entered on the revenue register as 'dry' land, an

extra charge varying from 7s. to 3s. per acre, a deduction being always allowed where the process of irrigation entails exceptional expense on the cultivator. On an acre of land assessed at 6s., the yield of paddy averages in value £1, 4s., and the out-turn increases or decreases, as a rule, in the proportion of 4s. to every 1s. added to or taken from the rent. The maximum yield on an acre of 'wet' land may be taken to be 18 cwts., the minimum 120 lbs.; on 'dry' land the produce per acre varies from 6 cwts. to 96 lbs. For every 3 acres a yoke of oxen is required, costing on the average £1, 5s. per pair. The agricultural implements of an ordinary cultivator cost about £1; that outlay representing the purchase of a plough, hoe, 2 sickles, spade, bill-hook, rake, harrow, and water-buckets. Manuring varies in cost from 6s. to 18s. per acre. With a holding of 5 acres, therefore, the peasant would not be so well off as a retail shopkeeper making a net income of 16s. a month. The mass of cultivators, however, hold less; and—although the expenses of an ordinary cultivator, with a wife and three children, may be calculated at only 7s. to 9s. per month for the family—they are, as a rule, in debt. Twenty acres would be considered a large holding; less than two acres reduces the cultivator to a hand-to-mouth subsistence. Under the favourable regulations in force, cultivable waste land is being annually taken up—a considerable area for the plantation of the *casuarina*. Agricultural and day-labourers, males, earn from 4d. to 5d. a day, females about half as much. Smiths, bricklayers, and carpenters obtain, on the average, 9d. a day. Since 1850, wages have risen 50, and in some cases 75, per cent. A comparison of the prices of food-grains in the years 1850-51, 1860-61, and 1870-71—all average years—shows a general rise in the second decade, with a fall in the third decade. Thus rice, selling (according to quality) at 25 and 28 lbs. per shilling in 1850-51, had risen to 16 and 18 per shilling in 1860-61, and fallen again to 18 and 19 per shilling in 1870-71; and *cholam*, which was at 46 lbs. for the shilling, rose to 27 for the shilling, and fell to 40. Paddy, in the same way, selling in 1850-51 at 52 and 63 lbs. per shilling, rose in 1860-61 to 34 and 39, and fell in 1870-71 to 45 and 50. Country liquor shows a reduction in price from 11d. to 3d. a gallon since 1850. Live stock have not changed notably in value,—a pig costs from 6s. to 10s.; a sheep, 2s. to 4s.; ducks, 8s. a dozen; and fowls about 2d. a piece. The District contains a large number of field labourers called *padayals*, of the *pariah* caste, who receive payment in kind, and are, as a rule, farm hands engaged by the season, but sometimes permanently attached to the estate. The mass of cultivators are, however, tenants of Government, with rights of occupancy terminable at their own option. On private estates the cultivators, where not *padayals*, are tenants-at-will, paying rent to the intermediate landlord, sometimes in cash but often in kind, and liable

to ejectment at the end of any season. The rates of interest vary from 12 to 24 per cent. on the security of personal goods; from 6 to 9 on large transactions; and from 12 to 18 per cent. on personal security, with a lien on a crop. Five to six per cent. would be considered a fair return on money invested in land.

Natural Calamities.—Floods and droughts have been frequent. The former occur chiefly in the valleys of the Punniar, Vellár, and Gaddilam, the most notable years of inundation being 1853, 1858, 1871, and 1874. Famine prices have prevailed ten times within the century. In 1806-07 Government relieved distress by large importations of grain, by the remission of revenue to the extent of £62,000, and by the disbursement of £23,000 on relief works. In 1833-34 the prices of grain doubled, and 18,000 persons were thrown on the relief works opened by Government. Remissions of revenue to the extent of £16,400 were granted. In 1866 relief works were again necessary. Other 'famine' years were 1823-24-25, 1867-68, 1873-74, 1875-76, and 1877. Violent storms visit the coast frequently, and the recorded loss of lives and shipping on the seaboard of this District is very great. In April 1749, two merchant vessels and two men-of-war went down with all their crews—one the *Namur*, a flagship, and the finest vessel of her size in the British Navy, having 750 men on board. The hurricane of October 1752 is recorded to have been the most violent remembered on the coast; and eight years later a cyclone scattered the blockading fleet in the Pondicherri roads. Three vessels of war were wrecked, and three others, with 1150 Europeans on board, went to the bottom. In 1784, 1795, 1808, 1820, 1831, 1840, 1842, 1853, 1870, and 1871, violent storms, causing a serious loss of shipping and doing great injury on shore, swept the coast of the District.

Commerce and Trade.—The list of District manufactures includes indigo, sugar, jaggery, salt, mats, coir, and cloths both of cotton and silk. The salt is made entirely under official supervision. The silk used comes from Mysore; it is dyed at Combaconum, and woven at Chidamburam. In the early part of the 18th century, the East India Company established cloth factories on a large scale at several points in the District, but the industry has now much decayed. Grain, pottery, spirits, and oils, in addition to the articles above noted, represent the internal trade. This is carried on by means of permanent markets in the principal towns, and periodical fairs at various places—the chief being the *Kartik* festival at Trinomalai, the *Arudra Darsanam* at Chidamburam, and the annual gatherings at Virudáchalam, Cuddalore, Kaillai, Srimushnam, Kuvágam, and Mylam. The export trade of the District in 1875 aggregated a value of £148,398 by land, and £88,038 by sea. Piece-goods contributed £22,480; oil and oil-seeds, £70,142; grain, £127,490; indigo, £2986; hides, £2018. The imports for the same year

amounted in value to £69,529, of which £62,825 entered by land. The leading items were—metal wares, £23,736; piece-goods, £8467; cocoa-nuts, £8984; twist, £5896. The chief centres of traffic are Cuddalore, Porto Novo, Panroti, Tiagar Drug, Tindivanam, Trinomalai, Villapuram, and Pondicherri (French). The fact that the exports are three times larger than the imports, points to an accumulation of money in the District. The only industries conducted by European agency are the manufacture of sugar and the spirit called *arrack*, the estimated annual value of the out-turn being £20,000 and £5000 respectively. Of District manufactures conducted by native capital, the annual values are estimated at—Indigo, £120,000; oils, £70,000. Along the coast, sea fishing occupies the population of some 25 villages. The produce is for the most part consumed locally, but a considerable quantity is cured for sale at a distance. The fresh-water fisheries of the District are not important, the total revenue for 1875-76 being £734. Iron ore is found in large quantities in the Kallekurichi, Trinomalai, and Tirukoilúr *táluks;* but a company, established in 1824 on an extensive scale for working the mines, has since suspended its operations. Quarries of sandstone, blue limestone, and laterite are advantageously worked. The roads of the District aggregate a length of 1160 miles, maintained by Government at an annual cost of £13,200. The only noteworthy canal is the Khán Sahib, connecting the Coleroon and Vadavár rivers with the Vellár; it is 43 miles in length, but, being navigable only for small craft, does not carry much traffic. A railway from Madras to Porto Novo, *en route* for Tanjore, was opened in 1878. The only institutions worthy of note are the *choultries*, 210 in number, and the religious edifices, 76 pagodas and 243 mosques, under the control of the Mosque and Pagoda Committee. Two out of the five ancient sites of Siva-worship—CHIDAMBARAM and TRINOMALAI—are in this District, as also is SRIMUSHNAM, one of the eight chief places of Vaishnav-worship.

Administration.—The total net revenue of the District amounted in 1870-71 to £443,108, being £118,535 in excess of the revenue for 1860-61, which again was £54,808 above that for 1850-51. The total expenditure on civil administration in 1870-71 was £64,932. The land revenue contributed in 1870-71, £324,707; salt, £60,799; *abkárí* (spirits and drugs), £23,423; sea customs, £5064; land customs, £7998; stamps, £5005; court fees and suits, £10,894. The police force cost £13,780. Gang robbery appears to be the most prevalent crime. On the assumption of the Government of the Carnatic by the Company, the police of the District consisted of the village watch only, presided over by local inspectors. This system was at once abolished, the police being placed under the District Judge, and authority centralized. In 1816, the control of the force was vested in the District Magistrate; and this system continued till 1859, when the

new Madras Constabulary (organized on the plan of the English County and Irish Constabulary) was introduced. The history of the District Courts has already been given. The District is administered by a Collector and Magistrate, with three Subdivisional Assistant-Magistrates and three Deputy-Collectors under him. Over each *táluk* is a *tahsíldár*, assisted by a deputy-*tahsíldár*. The jails of the District contained during 1870-71 a daily average of 304 prisoners, at a cost per head of £4, 6s. per annum. The average earnings of each working prisoner was £4, 10s.; the rate of mortality, 0·98 per cent. Education is represented by 3 higher schools, 9 middle-class, and 758 elementary schools. There are two municipalities, Cuddalore and Chidamburam. In 1870-71, the District post office distributed 235,462 covers, 210,973 being letters.

Medical Aspects.—Epidemic cholera appeared in Cuddalore in fourteen of the years between 1851 and 1875, the mortality averaging 50 per cent. of the persons attacked. Fevers appear to be endemic in some of the western *táluks;* and in the eastern tracts, leprosy and elephantiasis are prevalent. The chief drugs in the native pharmacopœia are mercury, sulphur, arsenic, lead, bismuth, sulphate of copper, calomel, magnesia, biliary, calculi of cattle, musk, safflower, orpiment, ginger, and castor-oil. The mode of treatment is in all cases the same—strict diet with purges. The native doctors (*hákíms*) never bleed, nor use leeches. Medicated oil-baths take the place of blisters. In cases of delirium, stimulants are applied to the eye-balls. Cattle epidemics, which are frequent, may be classed under the three heads of rinderpest, foot-and-mouth disease (*kumárí*), and tympanitis. The extension of cultivation has of late years been very great, and the pasturage available for cattle has diminished in proportion. The average annual rainfall of the District is 35·10 inches. Six dispensaries are, altogether or in part, supported by Government, the expenditure for 1870-71 being £1187.

Ardabak. — Village in the District of the 24 Parganás, Bengal. Noted for its iron and brass manufactures.

Argaum (*Argaon*, literally 'City of Wells').—Town in Akola District, Berar, mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari.* Lat. 21° 7′ 30″ N., long. 76° 59′ 30″ E. Contains 1000 houses and 800 wells. On the broad plain, intersected by watercourses, before Argaum, the British, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, gained a great victory (28th November 1803) over the Nágpur army, under Venkají (Raghojí Bhonsla's brother). This battle, with the capture of Gawilgarh (15th December) by General Stevenson, led to the Treaty of Deogaon (19th December), whereby the Bhonsla, in addition to other important cessions, resigned all claim to territory west of the Wardha. A medal commemorative of Argaum was struck in 1851, and presented to the surviving officers and soldiers.

Ariádahá.—Thriving village in the District of the 24 Parganás,

Bengal; half-way between Calcutta and Barrackpur. Lat. 22° 40′ N., long. 88° 25′ E.

Ariákod (*Ariacode*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 14′ 10″ N., long. 76° 3′ 21″ E.; houses, 1050; pop. (1871), 5089, chiefly Moplas. Situated on the south bank of the Beypore (Bepúr) river, 20 miles west of Beypore town. Chiefly notable for its timber trade (depôt established in 1797), and as the point of embarkation for the East Wynád coffee *en route* for Calicut.

Ariákupum.—Fort and estuary in French territory, within South Arcot District, Madras; situated 1½ mile south-west of Pondicherri. Lat. 11° 53′ N., long. 79° 42′ E. The fort and stream (known also as the Gingi river) formed an important part of the outer defences of Pondicherri in the operations of 1746-60, between which dates they changed hands more than once.

Ariál Khán.—A river of Lower Bengal. Between lat. 22° 37′ 30″ and 23° 26′ N., and between long. 90° 7′ 30″ and 90° 33′ 45″ E. Diverges from the Padmá, or Ganges, close to Farídpur town; flows south-east through the District of Farídpur and Bákarganj, forming a navigable chord line to the Ganges, which describes an arc farther to the east. Breadth, 1700 yards in the dry season, to 3000 in the rains. After throwing out a network of branches, re-enters the Gangetic estuary (Meghná) at Mirzáganj.

Ariankávu (*Areankoil*).—Village, pass, and shrine, in Shenkotta District, Travancore State, Madras; situated in a circular valley about a mile from the head of the pass. Lat. 8° 58′ 45″ N., long. 77° 11′ 15″ E. Since European capital has been directed to coffee cultivation in Assembu, the importance of this pass, which is one of the principal lines of road from Tinnevelly to Trevandrum and Quilon, has much increased.

Ariapád (*Arripaad*).—Shrine of great sanctity in Travancore State, Madras. Lat. 9° 17′ N., long. 76° 29′ 51″ E. The building itself is notable, while the spacious rest-houses, etc., attached, make it much frequented. The great annual gathering is in April. The State contributes largely to the support of the temple.

Arisillár.—River of Madras.—*See* Arasalar.

Arjuni.—Estate, Bhandára District, Central Provinces; 12 miles east of Sakoli town. Consists of 10 villages. Area, 13,889 acres, of which 2633 were under cultivation in 1870; pop. (1870), 2183, the preponderating class being Gonds, to which the chief belongs. Arjuni villages contain a school and police station.

Arjunpur.—Village on the boundary between Hardoi District, Oudh, and Farrukhabad District, North-Western Provinces; 7 miles north-east of Farrukhabad town. Pop. (1869), 2469.

Arkalgad (‘*Abode of the Sun*’).—Municipal town in Hassan District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 46′ N., long. 76° 5′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871),

3923; municipal revenue (1874-75), £73; rate of taxation, 4½d. per head. Site of historic interest, and headquarters of a *táluk*.

Arkavatí.—An important tributary of the Cauvery (Káveri) river; rises to the west of Nundydroog (Nandidrúg), and after flowing from west to south for about 120 miles, through Bangalore District, Mysore State, falls into the Cauvery (Káveri) on the south boundary of that District. Maximum flood discharge, 50,000 cubic feet per second; ordinary monsoon discharge, 3500 feet. The bed is sandy, and yields water on digging at all seasons of the year. It is not much used for irrigation, as its course lies chiefly through rocky hills and jungle.

Arkonam (*Arconum*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 13° 5′ 15″ N., long. 79° 42′ 56″ E.; pop. (1871), 2427, inhabiting 271 houses. Situated 42½ miles west of Madras. The junction station of the South-West, North-West, and Carnatic Railways, and therefore a rapidly growing settlement. Exclusive of transfer traffic, the returns for this station in 1875 showed 276,770 passengers, and 5730 tons of merchandise, yielding a revenue of £22,207.

Armeghon (*Armagon, Arumugam*).—Shoal and lighthouse on the coast of Madras, Nellore District. Lat. 13° 53′ N., long. 80° 17′ E. The shoal lies east by north of the lighthouse, which is situated near the village of Miniapolliem, raised 75 feet above high-water mark, and visible for 10 or 12 miles. Said to be named after Arumugam Mudaliar, by whose assistance the first English settlement on the Coromandel Coast was established at this place, in 1628.—*See* DURGARAZAPATAM.

Armorí.—Town, Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Wainganga river, about 80 miles north-east of Chánda town. The third place in commercial importance in the District, with manufactures of fine and coarse cloth, *tasar* thread, and country carts; and large mart for the exchange of forest produce, cattle, and iron from the wild eastern tracts, for commodities from the western Districts. Small municipality, the income of which is derived from octroi; large market place, police outpost station and Government school.

Arnála.—Island in Tanna District, Bombay; situated off the mouth of the Waitarna river. Contains a strong fort, which was besieged in 1781 by General Goddard in the course of the Marhattá campaign which closed in that year.

Arnatmangalam.—Village in Madura District, Madras. Remarkable for the peculiar tribe inhabiting it, called the 'Arambukutan' Vallálas, who differ in their manners and customs from all other Vallálas. They will not accept service of any kind nor perform any act of respect. Marriage out of their community is forbidden.

Arni.—A *jágír* (estate) in North Arcot District, Madras. Area

103,961 acres; houses, 10,016, grouped into 143 villages; pop. (1871), 77,679, being 39,047 males and 38,632 females. Hindus, 73,166, consisting of 49,119 Sivaites, 24,035 Vaishnavs, and 12 Lingayats; Muhammadans, 2742, including 2635 Sunis and 36 Shias; Christians, 145; Buddhists and Jains, 1626. Chief town, ARNI. This *jágír* was first granted by the Rájá of Vijayanagar in the 16th century, and the grant was confirmed by the Company in 1789 at an annual tribute (*peshkash*) of £1000.

Arni.—Town in the Arni *jágír* (estate), North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 12° 40′ 23″ N., long. 79° 19′ 31″ E.; houses, 739; pop. (1871), 4468. Situated 400 feet above the sea on the right bank of the Cheyair (Cheyár) river, 16 miles south of Arcot. Formerly a large military station, but at present merely the headquarters of the *jágír*. The fort, now in ruins, played a conspicuous part in the wars of the Carnatic. In 1751 it was stormed by Clive, when pursuing Rájá Sáhib, after the successful defence of Arcot; and under its walls, in 1782, Sir Eyre Coote defeated the troops of Lally and Haidar Ali, capturing the fort with all the military stores lodged in it by the enemy. Here also the British army concentrated for the campaign of 1790.

Aror.—Ruined town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 27° 39″ N., long. 68° 59′ E. Formerly the capital of the Hindu Rájás of Sind, and said by native historians to have been taken from them by the Muhammadans about 711 A.D. It was built on the bank of the old course of the Indus, and was destroyed by the earthquake which, about 962 A.D., diverted the river into its present channel. Among the ruins, the mosque of Alamgír is still an object of pilgrimage.

Arpallí.—*Parganá* in Chánda District, Central Provinces; lying between 19° 28′ 15″ and 19° 49′ 45″ N. lat., and between 79° 48′ 15″ and 80° 11′ 30″ E. long.; area, 440 square miles. Contains 81 villages, the principal being GHOT, but most of them merely small clearings tenanted by Máriás. The country is hilly, everywhere covered with forests, but with numerous sites for reservoirs, and abounding in perennial streams.

Arrah.—Headquarters Subdivision of Sháhabad District, Bengal; lying between 25° 10′ 15″ and 25° 47′ N. lat., and between 84° 19′ and 84° 54′ E. long.; area, 965 square miles; pop. (1872), 614,980, comprising 570,468 Hindus, 44,339 Muhammadans, and 173 Christians and others. Number of villages, 1354; houses, 97,484. Average number of persons per square mile, 637; villages per square mile, 1·4; houses per square mile, 101; number of persons per village, 454, and per house, 6·3. The Subdivision contains the three *thánás* of Arrah, Belautí, and Píru. In 1870-71, there were 13 magisterial and revenue courts. Total police force, 1951 men. The total separate cost of Subdivisional administration was returned in 1871 at £15,047.

Arrah.—The administrative Headquarters and most populous town of Sháhabad District, Bengal; and a municipality. Lat. 25° 33′ 46″ N., long. 84° 42′ 22″ E.; pop. (1872), 39,386, comprising 28,435 Hindus, 10,866 Muhammadans, 85 Christians and others; municipal income (1872), £1271; rate of municipal taxation, 7¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town is well built, and has a dispensary, jail, and the usual public offices. There is a station of the East India Railway here; distance from Calcutta, 196 miles. Arrah figures prominently in the history of the Mutiny of 1857. A dozen Englishmen, with 50 Síkhs, who had been sent to their aid by the Commissioner of Patná, gallantly held two buildings, now known as the Judges' houses, against the mutineers under Kuár Sinh for eight days (27th July to 3d August), until relieved by Major Vincent Eyre. For the particulars of this brilliant defence, see Sir J. W. Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War*, vol. iii., or the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xii. pp. 204, 217, 219, 257.

Arrah Canal.—A branch of the SON CANAL system in Sháhabad District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 58′ to 25° 41′ 15″ N., long. 84° 13′ 30″ to 84° 46′ E. It commences at the fifth mile (from the head works at Dehrí) of the Main Western Canal, and follows a northerly course, passing Arrah town; finally falling into the Gangí *nadí*, by means of which it will communicate with the Ganges. Its length from the point where it leaves the Main Western Canal to the Gangí *nadí* is 55 miles. Thirteen locks are necessary to overcome the fall of 180 feet between Dehrí and the Ganges. The canal is designed both for irrigation and navigation; it has four principal distributaries, exclusive of the Bihiyá branch (30½ miles), and the Dumráon branch (40½ miles). With these the canal commands an area of 441,500 acres. Area actually irrigated up to 31st March 1876, 35,655 acres; water rates collected to the same time, £5070.

Arsikere.—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State, containing temples built in the Chálukyan style of architecture, with inscriptions. There are also memorials of the Hoysala Ballala line of kings. Lat. 13° 18′ 38″ N., long. 76° 17′ 41″ E.

Arundángi.—Tract and fortress in Madura District, Madras, which in the early history of the Province played a conspicuous part. It was taken in the 15th century from the Chola kings by the Sethupati general of the Pandya monarch, and annexed to the dominions of the latter. In the 17th century it belonged to Tanjore, and about 1646 was wrested from that State by Raghunáth Tevan. Restored by treaty, it was again captured on war breaking out afresh in 1698. Early in the 18th century, 'the important Province of Arundángi' is spoken of as the governorship of a son of 'the Kilavan' of Ramnád. The fortress subsequently changed hands many times, the Tanjore Rájá finally occupying it in 1749.

Arvi.—Revenue Subdivision in Wardha District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 45′ and 21° 3′ 15″ N. lat., and between 78° 10′ 30″ and 78° 40′ E. long.; area, 868 square miles; contains (1872) 292 villages, with a population of 116,415, of whom 35,604 are adult males employed in agriculture.

Arvi. — Municipal town in Wardha District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 59′ 45″ N., long. 78° 16′ 16″ E.; pop. (1877) within municipal limits, 7143; municipal income, £618—from taxes £542, or 1s. 6d. per head. Under the Marhattá Government, the Kamávisdár in charge of the Anjí *parganá* used to hold court here. It is now the headquarters of the Arvi *tahsíl* and police circle. Said to have been founded 300 years ago by Telang Ráo Wálí, and hence sometimes called Arví Telang Ráo. The Hindus claim Telang Ráo as a Bráhman, and the Muhammadans as a Muhammadan. Both worship at his tomb, now a handsome shrine. Arví has a market-place; a dispensary; a *sarái*, with rooms for Europeans; an excellent municipal garden; and an Anglo-vernacular school, well attended.

Arwal.—Village and produce depôt on the river Son, in Gayá District, Bengal, with the only indigo factory in the District. Lat. 25° 14′ 43″ N., long. 84° 42′ 30″ E.; area under indigo, 2535 *bíghás*; average annual out-turn, 270 cwts. Contains two considerable sugar manufactories. In the beginning of this century Arwal was famous throughout Behar for its paper manufactories, but the *Kághazi Mahal*, or 'Paper Quarter,' is now a collection of ruined houses, and the industry is almost extinct. Distance from Patná, 41 miles.

Arwal.—Village in Hardoi District, Oudh, between the Ganges and Rámganga rivers; 11 miles south-west from Sándi. It is inhabited by Bais Kshattriyas, whose ancestor purchased it with two neighbouring villages about 800 years ago. Pop. (1869), 2242.

Aryalur.—Town in Trichinopoly District, Madras. Lat. 11° 8′ 20″ N., long. 79° 6′ 40″ E.; houses, 973; pop. (1871), 5852. Headquarters of a Deputy-Collector and Assistant-Magistrate, whose charge comprises the *táluks* of Perambalúr and Udiyarpolliem. Also the headquarters of the Aryalúr estate, and the residence of the owner. Post office, dispensary, and a weekly grain market. Connected by metalled roads with Perambalúr and Kélappalúr.

Asaish (*Asáyash*, called also *Kahish*).—Village in Unao District, Oudh; 14 miles north-west from Safipur, and 33 miles north-west from Unao town. Founded by one Asa of the Gadi caste, in the reign of the Emperor Humáyun, about 300 years ago. Pop. (1869), 1643 Hindus and 172 Musalmáns—total, 1815.

Asansol.—Village in Bardwán District, Bengal, and railway station on the East Indian Railway. Lat. 23° 42′ N., long. 87° 1′ E. Situated

in the centre of the RANIGANJ coal-field; and distant from Calcutta 132 miles.

Asárur.—Village in Gujránwála District, Punjab, containing an extensive mound, with ruins of great antiquity, which reach back at least to the 1st century before the Christian era. Asarúr is identified by General Cunningham with the Tse-kia of Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century A.D. Tse-kia or Táki formed the capital of a kingdom embracing the whole Punjab plain from the Indus to the Beas, and from the mountains to the junction of the five rivers below Mooltan (Multán). The existing ruins comprise the foundations of the ancient palace, citadel, and city, built of large primitive bricks, some of which are moulded into ornamental patterns, and evidently belong to buildings of some pretensions. Numbers of Indo-Scythian coins are annually washed out of the soil after heavy rains. During Akbar's reign, Ugar Sháh, a Dogra, erected a mosque on the top of the mound out of bricks derived from the ruins. Two miles north-east of the ancient city, Hisuen Thsang describes a *stupa* of Asoka, commemorating the spot where Buddha had halted, and containing many of his sacred relics. The site of this *stupa* has been identified with another mound just 2 miles north of the modern village of Asárur.

Asásuní.—Village and police station in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; at the junction of the Sobnálí and Asásuní rivers. Lat. 22° 33′ N., long. 89° 13′ E. Anchorage for boats going east while waiting for tide. Large market, with considerable local trade. Annual fair during the *Dol-játrá* festival.

Ashe-myouk.—Township in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. A mountainous and forest-covered tract, occupying the eastern portion of Tavoy District. It stretches from Amherst on the north, to Mergui and the low hill-range forming the eastern watershed of the Tavoy river on the south. The Siamese Mountains form the eastern boundary. The chief river is the Tenasserim, which rises in the spurs of the Myeng-mo-let-khat Hill (highest peak 7000 feet), flows north by west for some distance, at Myetta is joined by the Khamoung-thwai, and, turning west by south round the northern end of a range of hills, runs southward into MERGUI DISTRICT. The Tenasserim, before its junction with the Khamoung-thwai, is very shallow in the dry season. Both streams are fed by numerous mountain torrents. A succession of rapids renders them unnavigable. The chief town is Myetta, traditionally the capital of an independent Siamese principality, but now only a small Kareng village, and a settlement of the American Baptist Mission. Gross revenue of the township (1876), £4293; pop. 18,061.

Ashe-toung.—Township in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division;

British Burma, on the left bank of the Tavoy river. A tract extending southward along the coast to Mergui District, drained by numerous streams, the mouths of which are fringed with mangroves. The chief river is the Toung-byouk, which rises in the Myeng-mo-let-khat Hill, and flowing north-west through a fertile valley, falls into the Tavoy river by an outlet half a mile wide. Chief products—Rice, sesamum, cardamoms, betel-nuts, fruit, and the *nipá* palm, which furnishes *tári* (spirits) and sugar. The south-east of the township is separated from the north-eastern portion by a range of hills. Gross revenue (1876), £4333; pop. 17,943.

Ashta.—Municipal town in Satara District, Bombay, on the right bank of the river Krishná, and on the main road from Miraj to Satara; 20 miles north-west of the former, and 64 miles south-east of the latter. Lat. 16° 57′ N., and long. 74° 27′ 5″ E.; pop. (1872), 9896; municipal revenue (1874-75), £51; rate of taxation, 1⅛d. per head. Ashta is an agricultural town, with a weekly market, and an annual fair held in June, when about 5000 persons assemble. There is a sub-judge's court and a post office.

Ashtagram.—A Division in the State of Mysore, comprising the two Districts of MYSORE and HASSAN (which see separately). Lies between 11° 40′ and 13° 33′ N. lat., and between 75° 31′ and 77° 27′ E. long.; area, 7419 square miles; pop. (1871), 1,613,148, thus classified—1,549,738 Hindus, 54,250 Muhammadans, 4919 Christians, 4204 Jains, and 37 'others;' revenue about £270,000. The name is derived from 'eight villages' once granted for the charitable support of Bráhmans.

Ashti.—Ancient town in Wardha District, Central Provinces; 52 miles north-west of Wardha town. Lat. 21° 12′ N., long. 78° 13′ 30″ E.; pop. (1870), 5224. Ashti, which is said to have been a flourishing town under the prehistoric Gauli kings, was granted by the Emperor Jahángír, with other *parganás*, in *jágír* to Muhammad Khán Niází, an Afghán noble (died 1629), who restored the town and brought the surrounding country under cultivation. He and his successor, Ahmad Khán Niází, are buried here under handsome mausoleums in the Mughal style, lately restored. Ashti has a reservoir, a well-attended Anglo-vernacular school, and a police station-house under a head constable.

Asirgarh.—A strong fortress in Nimár District, Central Provinces; 29½ miles south-west of Khandwa, and 7 from the station of Chándní on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Lat. 21° 28′ 19″ N., long. 76° 20′ 9″ E. It is situated on a detached spur of the Sátpura range; height, 850 feet from the base and 2300 above sea level. Greatest length of the fortress from west to east, about 1100 yards; greatest breadth from north to south, about 600; but owing to its irregular shape, the area

does not exceed 60 acres. The fortress is terminated on every side by a bluff precipice, from 80 to 120 feet deep, so well scarped as to leave means of ascent at two places only. The approach from the north leads up a ravine, ending where the hill is highest, and is defended by an outer rampart, containing four casements with embrasures, 18 feet high, as many thick, and 190 feet long, which crosses it from one part of the interior wall to another, where a re-entering angle is formed by the works. The easier and principal approach, on the south-west side, proceeds by a steep ascent of stone steps through five gateways, constructed in fine masonry, and protected by a double line of works. A third line of works, called the Lower Fort, embraces an inferior branch of the hill immediately above the village. 'A sallyport of extraordinary construction,' writes Colonel Blacker, in his account of the Marhattá wars (1817-19), to which I owe several of the details here given, 'descends through the rock at the south-eastern extremity, and is easily blocked on necessity by dropping down materials at certain stages, which are open to the top.' The fort possesses an ample supply of water sheltered from shot range, but the numerous ravines around the base afford cover in every direction to an enemy's approach. According to Farishta, Asirgarh was fortified in about 1370 by the eponymous herdsman Asá Ahír, to whose ancestors the place had belonged for seven centuries. The Farrukhi princes of Khandesh held it for 200 years, till it was surrendered by the last of that dynasty to the great Akbar. From that time the fort appears to have remained in the possession of the Delhi Emperors, up to the invasion of their kingdom by the Marhattás. In 1803 it was taken with little resistance from Daulat Ráo Sindhia by a detachment of General Wellesley's army, shortly after the battle of Assaye; but on peace being concluded with the Marhattás in the same year, it was restored to Sindhia. In 1819, it was again besieged by a British force, to which it surrendered after an investment of twenty days. Since then the fort has remained in British possession. It is generally garrisoned by a wing of Native Infantry and two companies of Europeans. Several ancient guns of large size, dating from the reign of Aurangzeb, and elaborately ornamented, form splendid specimens of native gun casting.

Asíwan.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh. A small tract, 18 miles long by 9 broad; area, 100 square miles; Government land revenue, £8446, at the rate of 2s. 8d. per acre. The land is mainly owned by village communities, only 10 square miles belonging to *tálukdárs*. The principal proprietors are a clan called the Gamhelas, said to be descended from the Mahrois, but illegitimately, through an Ahir mother. Pop. (1869)—Hindus, 54,074; Muhammadans, 6114; total, 60,188, of whom 31,604 are males and 28,584 females. Number of villages, 119; average density of population, 601 per square mile.

Principal buildings are a fine masonry *thákurdwára* at Katra, and a mosque at Rasulabad, dating from 1664 A.D.

Asíwan.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 20 miles north of Unao town, on the road from Lucknow to Bángarmau. Lat. 26° 48′ 35″ N., long. 80° 29′ 40″ E. Said to have been founded by a *dhobi* or washerman, named Asun, about 800 years ago. Pop. (1869), 4161 Hindus, and 1656 Muhammadans—total, 5817. Houses, 1228, of which 51 are of masonry; 9 mosques; 10 temples to Mahádeo (Siva) and 2 to Debi. Good masonry *saráí.* Bi-weekly markets, at which the annual sales of grain amount to about £1450.

Aska.—*Zamíndárí* (estate) in the Ganjam District, Madras Presidency. Revenue, £740. Formerly a portion of the Goomsur (Gumsúr) estate. Chief town, ASKA.

Aska (*Asiká*).—Town in Ganjam District, Madras. Lat. 19° 36′ 35″ N., long. 84° 42′ 6″ E.; houses, 861; pop. (1871), 4255. Situated 10 miles south of Goomsur (Gumsúr), on the road from Berhampore to Russell-konda, immediately above the confluence of the Rushikulya and Mahánadi rivers. The former of these is crossed near the town by a fine masonry bridge of 19 spans. Being the headquarters of the *Zamíndárí* of Aska, it is the residence of the proprietors. The town possesses a subordinate court, jail, police station, post office, etc. During the Goomsur disturbances in 1835-36, Aska was temporarily occupied by troops. The town lies in a richly fertile tract of country, chiefly planted with sugar-cane; and near it are sugar works, employing about 1000 hands under English supervision, with an annual out-turn of rum and rice spirit to the value of £30,000, and sugar to the value of £7200.

Asoha Parsandan.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh. A small and unimportant *parganá*, with an area of 44 square miles or 28,358 acres; cultivated area, 24 square miles; Government land revenue, £3423, at the rate of 2s. 4⅞d. per acre. The land is thus distributed—*Tálukdárí*, 9111 acres; *zamíndárí*, 11,519 acres; *pattidárí*, 7728 acres. The principal landed proprietors are Sengar Kshattriyas. Pop. (1869)—Hindus, 21,104; Muhammadans, 665; total, 21,769, of whom 11,327 are males and 10,442 females. Number of villages, 53; average density of population, 495 per square mile.

Asoha.—Village in Unao District, Oudh; 10 miles north of Purwa, and 32 miles east of Unao town. Lat. 26° 38′ N., long. 80° 56′ E. Said to have been founded by the sage Aswasthama, mentioned in the Mahábhárata. Pop. (1869), 1251, with only 1 Muhammadan. Five temples. Pleasantly situated in groves of mango and *mahuá* trees.

Asperi.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 1772. Railway station on the north-west line of the Madras Railway.

Assam (said to be derived from the name of the dominant tribe,

the Aham, locally pronounced as *Asam*).—The Province of Assam lies on the north-eastern border of Bengal, and forms the north-eastern frontier Province of the Indian Empire. It comprises the valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Barák or Surmá, together with the mountainous watershed which intervenes between these two rivers. It is situated between 23° 58′ 30″ and 28° 17′ N. lat., and between 89° 46′ and 97° 5′ E. long. The total area is estimated at 41,798 square miles, excluding certain unsettled tracts in the hill territory, and also the surface of the larger rivers; the total population, also excluding the hill tracts, amounts to 4,132,019, according to the Census of 1871-72. The latest published statistics (1878) give a total area of 55,384 square miles, including an estimate for the unsurveyed tracts in the Cachar, Nagá, and Lakhimpur Hills. The administrative Headquarters and the residence of the Chief Commissioner are at the station of SHILLONG, in the Khási Hills.

Assam is bounded on the north by the eastern section of the great Himalayan range, the frontier tribes from west to east being successively Bhutiás, Akás, Daphlas, Miris, Abars, and Mishmis; on the north-east by the Mishmi Hills, which sweep round the head of the Brahmaputra valley; on the east by the unexplored mountains that mark the frontier of Burma, by the hills occupied by independent Nágá tribes, and by the State of Manipur; on the south by the hills occupied by the Kukís or Lusháis, by the State of Hill Tipperah, and by the Bengal District of Tipperah; on the west by the Bengal Districts of Maimansinh and Rangpur, the State of Kuch Behar, and Jalpáigurí District.

History.—The Province of Assam was constituted in its present form in the year 1874, when the eleven Districts comprising it were separated from the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, and erected into an independent administration under a Chief Commissioner. The tract thus united under one Government is naturally divided into three portions,—the Brahmaputra valley, the Surmá valley, and the intervening hill tracts,—each of which in former times possessed a separate history. To the Brahmaputra valley alone, covering an area of 20,683 square miles, or just one-half the whole, is the name of Assam properly applicable. This fertile valley, penetrated throughout its entire length by a great navigable river, has always been closely connected with the main course of Indian history, though it has never formed an integral part of the vast empires which dominated at various times over the rest of the peninsula. In ethnological features and in language, as well as in history, the population of Assam are distinct from the great body of Hindus, though in recent times they have adopted the Bráhmanical religion. The earliest authentic traditions attest the existence of a Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp, with its capital at Gauháti, still the largest town of the Province. The area of this

kingdom is said to have extended over a great part of Eastern Bengal, including the present District of Rangpur. One of the early Rájás is popularly identified with the Bhagadattá of the *Mahábhárata*, who was slain by Arjun. Many local legends are current concerning his successors, which are preserved in the *Yogini Tántra*. The best evidence of their power is to be found in the remains of Gauháti, and in the ruins of palaces and temples of hewn stone which lie scattered through the valley of the Brahmaputra as far up as Tezpur. The overthrow of this dynasty is ascribed to the Muhammadans, who occupied Rangpur for the first time in the 15th century, and sent several expeditions into Assam. A state of general anarchy ensued, out of which the aboriginal tribe of Kochs or Rájbansis rose to power, and founded a kingdom which was at one time co-extensive with the earlier Hindu Empire of Kámrúp. The present Rájá of Kuch Behar, in Bengal, still represents the main line of this dynasty, and the petty Rájás of Darrang, Bijni, and Sidli, in the Brahmaputra valley, also belong to the same stock.

The modern history of Assam embodies the conflict between two races of invaders—the Ahams, who entered the valley from the north-east, and the Musalmáns, who were ever trying to annex the Province to Bengal. The Ahams succeeded in establishing their authority throughout the whole valley, but their permanent influence upon the civilisation of the people whom they subdued was comparatively small. They were a tribe of Shan origin, of the same stock as the Siamese, and are supposed to have first entered the head of the valley in the 13th century. The extension of their power westwards was very gradual; and the fact that all their great towns are situated as far up as Sibságar District, explains the late continuance of the Koch dynasty in Lower Assam. The Ahams appear to have been a bold race of warriors, who were not afraid to meet the Mughals face to face in battle; and they also possessed a highly organized system of Government, differing in several important particulars from that which prevailed throughout India. It was not the soil so much as the cultivators of the soil that were regarded as the property of the Aham State. The entire scheme of administration was based upon the obligation of personal service, due from every individual alike. Each male inhabitant above the age of sixteen years was denominated a *páik*, and enlisted as a member of a vast army of public servants. A certain number of *páiks* made up a company or *gót*; and there were also larger divisions called *khéls*, under the orders of a *khéldár*. The whole population, thus classified in regiments and brigades, was ready to take the field on the shortest notice. But this organization was not only used for military purposes; it supplied also the machinery by which public works were conducted, and the revenue was raised. Every *páik* was

liable to render personal service to the Rájá, or to pay a poll-tax if his attendance was not required. As remuneration, he was entitled to a certain allotment of land revenue free, which he could not alienate, and which did not descend to his children. The Aham princes were efficient administrators, but hard taskmasters. It was by the *páik* organization that they were able to repel the Muhammadan invaders, and also to construct those great public works still to be seen scattered throughout the Province in the form of embankments and tanks. But the memory of their system of forced labour has sunk so deep into the minds of the native population, that at the present day it is reckoned a badge of servitude to accept employment on public works. Our civil officers find it almost impossible to attract labour, even by the offer of excessive rates of wages.

The Ahams became converts to Hinduism about the year 1650, when their Rájá, Chutumlá, received from the Bráhmans the name of Jayadhájiá Sinh. In his reign occurred the Mughal invasion of Assam under Mír Jumlá, one of the most skilful generals of Aurangzeb. Despite the boasts of the Muhammadan chroniclers, it is certain that this invasion proved ultimately unsuccessful, and that the Ahams forthwith pushed the westward limit of their kingdom as far as Goálpára. The greatest of the Aham kings was Rudra Sinh, who is said to have ascended the throne in 1695. In the following century, the dynasty began to decay, being torn by internal dissension, and hard pressed by invaders from without. The acquaintance of the British with Assam dates from the year 1792, when Captain Welsh was sent with a detachment of Sepoys to restore Rájá Gaurináth Sinh, who had been dispossessed by a combination between the Koch Rájá of Darrang and a sect of religious fanatics called Moámáriás. Captain Welsh having successfully achieved his purpose, was recalled in 1794, in accordance with the policy of non-intervention then dominant at Calcutta. He left anarchy behind him in Assam. The Aham Rájás had become mere puppets in the hands of rival ministers, and no party in the State was strong enough to stand without foreign help. The Burmese were called in as arbitrators, and, having once established themselves in Assam, ruled the natives with a rod of iron. Whole districts are known to have been depopulated by their barbarities and exactions. At length, in 1824, war was declared between the British and the Burmese, and, as an incident in the war, Assam was occupied by a British army, and finally ceded to us by the treaty of Yendaboo (Yándábu) on the 24th February 1826. Lower Assam was forthwith placed under direct British administration, but the upper part of the valley was constituted a separate principality under Purandra Sinh, one of the pretenders to the Aham throne. In 1838, however, it was found necessary to annex this tract also.

The Districts of Sylhet and Goálpára had been previously acquired by the East India Company in 1765, together with the rest of the *diwáni* of Bengal. Cachar was acquired by lapse in 1830, on the death of the last native Rájá, Govind Chandra, without heirs. The British authority has gradually extended itself over the hill tracts at various times. The Gáro Hills were from the first nominally included within the Bengal District of Goálpára, and were placed under a separate officer in 1866; but as late as 1873, a military expedition was necessary to exact submission from the independent tribes. The Khási Hill States were conquered, after a petty war of a harassing nature, in 1833; and the chiefs are treated to the present day as semi-independent, no direct taxation being levied from them. The Jaintiá Hills were acquired in 1835, when the native Rájá forfeited his territory in the plains for complicity in the human sacrifice of a British subject. The inhabitants, who call themselves Syntengs, rose in insurrection in 1862 as a protest against the introduction of novel taxes; and the rebellion was not suppressed without difficulty. An officer was first stationed at Samaguting in the Nágá Hills in 1868, but the savage tribe of Angámí Nágás still cherish their primitive independence, and have occasionally been guilty of bloodthirsty feuds or raids. The Eastern Dwárs portion of Goálpára District was annexed from Bhután after the war of 1864.

Physical Aspect.—The three Divisions of Assam which have been already indicated are distinguished by well-marked physical features. Assam Proper, or the valley of the Brahmaputra, is an alluvial plain, about 450 miles long, with an average breadth of 50 miles. On all sides but the west it is shut in by jungle-covered ranges or lofty mountains. From east to west it is traversed by the main stream of the Brahmaputra, and the strips of land along each bank of the great river are intersected by numerous minor streams. The low land immediately beneath the river banks, but above the level of the stream during the dry season, is liable to annual inundation, and abandoned to a wild overgrowth of reeds or grass jungle. At the distance of about six miles from the river, the ground begins to rise gradually towards the hills, and in this tract permanent cultivation becomes possible. The uniform level is broken at intervals by low, conical hills, which are scattered in isolated mounds, or in clusters throughout the plains. In some parts, also, the southern hills throw forward spurs, running down almost to the river bank. The Surmá valley reproduces the same phenomena on a smaller scale. The District of Cachar is crossed by hill ranges running transversely to the main river, and in Sylhet the valley gradually expands until it merges into the wide expanse of Eastern Bengal. The central hill tract, comprising the Districts of the Nágá Hills, Khási and Jaintiá Hills and Gáro Hills, forms a long, projecting outwork of the mountain system

that intervenes between the watersheds of the Brahmaputra and the Irrawaddy. This outwork consists, not of one hill range, but of a large number of ridges and plateaux, running for the most part parallel to one another and separated by deep valleys. The general slope of the ridges runs from east to west. The highest elevation is in the neighbourhood of Samaguting in the Nágá Hills, about 10,000 feet above sea-level. In the Khási Hills the range above Shillong rises to 6449 feet, while the Gáro Hills have no point above 4700 feet. The ascent from the plain is very abrupt, especially on the southern side of the Khási ranges; and each separate ridge or plateau is marked by precipitous outlines.

The soil of the Brahmaputra valley is for the most part a rich, black loam, reposing on grey sandy clay, but in some tracts a light yellow clay appears on the surface. The mountains on the north and east are of igneous formation, being composed of primitive limestone, granite, serpentine, porphyry, and talcose slate. The Mishmi Hills, closing the north-eastern frontier, are of limestone. The Nágá Hills begin on the east with sandstone; but in the neighbourhood of Samaguting granite appears, which runs westwards continuously to the end of the Gáro ranges. In the Khási and Jaintiá Hills, stratified rocks of sandstone, limestone, and shale occur; and talc in the Gáro Hills. Over the greater part of the hill tracts, the surface soil is a red ferruginous loam.

The hills of Assam abound in mineral resources, including coal, iron, and limestone. The existence of coal was first discovered in 1825, and several attempts at working the seams have been conducted by European capital. The beds at the foot of the Nágá Hills in Lakhimpur and Sibságar Districts were examined and reported upon by Mr. Mallet in the years 1874-75 and 1875-76. These coal-fields are six in number, extending over a tract of country 110 miles long, and are computed to contain an aggregate of 40 million tons. There are several small beds in the Khási and Jaintiá Hills. The quality of the coal in both cases is described as excellent; but the difficulty of transport has as yet prevented it from competing with the coal imported from the Bengal mines or from England. The coal consumed as fuel at Shillong, which is raised in the neighbourhood, costs as much as £3 per ton. Petroleum is found in abundance near the out-crop of the several coal-measures, but attempts to introduce the oil as an article of commerce have hitherto proved unsuccessful. Iron, also, occurs along the whole line of the hill tracts, chiefly in the form of clay ironstone. In former times the Khásiás supplied the plains of Eastern Bengal with smelted ore and iron implements, but now the industry has died out under the competition of the cheaper English article. Inexhaustible beds of limestone are found on the southern face of the Khási and Jaintiá Hills. From time immemorial a large

part of the supply of Bengal has been derived from this source under the name of 'Sylhet lime.' In 1876-77 the total export was 37,709 tons, valued at £74,000, and the revenue to Government from royalties was £6726. It is said that gold exists in most of the hill streams, but the business of gold-washing barely supports a few miserable families.

Forests form a second great source of natural wealth in Assam, but they have only recently been placed under a system of conservancy protection. Until within the last few years, woodcutters from Bengal had been permitted, without tax or other interference, to cut as they pleased in the woods of the Province, so that at the present time no mature timber-trees are anywhere to be found within reach of water carriage. In the year 1871-72, measures of protection were first adopted, and by the close of 1876-77, an area of 1910·45 square miles had been declared 'forest reserves,' under the control of the Forest Department. In addition, there is an area of 6157·95 square miles of forest under the ordinary authority of the civil officers. In 1876-77 the total revenue of the Forest Department was £8175, against an expenditure of £8992, showing an adverse balance of £817; but a net revenue of £3638 was realized from forests by the District officers. These figures, however, only show the financial results of an elaborate system of forest administration still in its infancy. The most valuable timber-trees are *sál* (Shorea robusta), *sisu* (Dalbergia sissoo), *nahor* (Mesua ferrea), *ajhar* (Lagerstrœmia reginæ). In the Khási Hills are found Pinus *kasya*, and many other trees characteristic of a temperate clime. It has been found impracticable to levy any revenue from the collection of caoutchouc (Ficus elastica), as the trees had been exhausted by indiscriminate tapping. In the year 1876-77, 40,000 tons of timber, valued at £335,210, and 365 tons of caoutchouc, valued at £51,060, were exported to Bengal.

Among the wild animals of Assam may be mentioned elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, leopards, bears, deer of many kinds, buffaloes, and the *mithan* or *mebná*, a species of wild cow domesticated by the hill tribes. The last is believed to be the Bos, the Bison of Madras sportsmen. The domestic animals are principally confined to common cattle and buffaloes. The former are very numerous, but the breed is indifferent. The buffaloes, on the other hand, are of peculiar excellence, which is attributed to the circumstance that they interbreed with the wild stock. Ponies are imported from Manipur and Bhután. The right of capturing wild elephants is regarded as a Government prerogative, and is leased out annually upon stringent conditions. The elephant hunting-grounds, which lie chiefly among the lower slopes of the hill tracts, are divided into 59 *mahâls*, and yielded in 1875-76 a total revenue of £4990. Government retains the option of purchasing every elephant caught between 6 and 7½ feet in height at the price of £60,

and a royalty of £10 is payable by the leaseholder on every elephant not so purchased. Elephants are largely used by the Forest Department. In 1874, the total number of deaths reported as caused by wild beasts was 238, and 258 by snake-bite—total, 496, or one in every 8417 of the population. The sum expended in the same year as rewards for killing wild beasts was £1212.

Population.—Prior to 1871-72 no trustworthy estimates exist of the population of Assam. The Census of that year, which was taken for the most part through the agency of the *mauzádárs*, or village revenue officials, disclosed a total population of 4,132,019 persons, or an average of 99 persons per square mile, taking the area of 41,789 square miles to which the actual enumeration was confined. It was not considered advisable to count the population in the outlying hill tracts of Cachar and Lakhimpur, although nominally under British rule; and the figures for both the Nágá Hills and the Gáro Hills are avowedly only approximations to the truth. In the other Districts, the results may be accepted as fairly correct. The following table shows the distribution of the inhabitants in the several Districts, and also gives all the information available concerning the number of *mauzás* or villages, and the number of houses:—

POPULATION OF ASSAM ARRANGED IN DISTRICTS (1871-2).

	Square miles.	Villages.	Houses.	Population.	Average per square mile.
SURMA VALLEY—					
Sylhet, . . .	5,383	5,589	286,594	1,719,539	319
Cachar, . . .	1,285	389	37,311	205,027	160
Total, . .	6,668	5,978	323,905	1,924,566	288
BRAHMAPUTRA VALLEY—					
Goálpára, . .	4,433	...	72,655	444,761	100
Kámrúp, . . .	3,631	1,649	103,908	561,681	155
Darrang, . . .	3,413	137	43,558	236,009	69
Nowgong, . .	3,648	1,293	44,050	256,390	70
Sibságar, . . .	2,413	203	55,604	296,589	123
Lakhimpur, . .	3,145	125	26,398	121,267	39
Total, . .	20,683	3,407	346,173	1,916,697	92
HILL TRACTS—					
Nágá Hills, . .	4,900	...	...	68,918	23
Khási and Jaintiá Hills,	6,157	...	...	141,838	14
Gáro Hills, . .	3,390	...	...	80,000	23
Total, . .	14,447	...	...	290,756	20
Grand total, . .	41,798	...	...	4,132,019	99

The latest returns show an area of 55,384 square miles, owing to larger estimates being allowed for the hilly tracts. Several rectifications of District boundaries have also taken place. But the previous figures are retained for the total population, and the above table shows the facts as nearly as they could be ascertained at the last Census, on which the following calculations have also been based.

The density of the population varies greatly—from 319 inhabitants per square mile in Sylhet, to an average of 92 throughout Assam Proper, and only 20 in the hill tracts. The detailed classification of the Census returns was only carried out in the settled portions of the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys. Classified according to sex, there are 2,125,527 males and 1,999,412 females; proportion of males in the total population, 51·44 per cent. Classified according to age, there are 809,970 boys and 697,097 girls under 12 years of age; total children, 1,507,067, or 36·47 per cent. of the population.

Regarded ethnically, the population of Assam presents a great variety of races. As compared with Bengal, tribes of aboriginal or semi-aboriginal descent are especially numerous; and the distinction which the Census Report draws between these two classes is not quite uniformly maintained. There is no distinct Assamese nationality; the Assamese language being merely a modern dialect of Bengálí. Those tribes which still remain in their native hills preserve their primitive religion and customs, and in many cases also their own language; but wherever the aboriginal tribes have permanently settled in the plains, whether as conquerors or in agricultural colonies, they have fallen under the overshadowing influence of Hinduism, and now rank as low castes in the Bráhmanical system. Purity of blood, indeed, is very lightly regarded throughout Assam. Intermarriage between the different castes is common, and the offspring of mixed marriages are readily received into one or other of the low castes. Among those aboriginal tribes who keep their nationality unimpaired, the most numerous are the Nágás, the Khásiás, the Gáros, and the Mikirs. The Cacharis, also, who are identified with the Mechs of the Eastern and Western Dwárs, remain still for the most part in the condition of primitive barbarism. They have given their name to the District of Cachar; but, as a matter of fact, their Rájá fixed his capital there within a very recent period, and the great majority of the tribe are to be found in the lower Districts of the Brahmaputra valley. The two tribes of Ahams and Chutiyás are the descendants of former masters of Assam, who have now sunk to the condition of ordinary Hindu cultivators. The Aham dynasty survived to the beginning of the present century; but according to the Census of 1872 there are now only 128,980 of this race to be found in the Province—principally in the District of Sibságar, which contains the ruins of several of their capitals. The Chutiyás number

51,482, chiefly in the same District. The Kochs, or Rájbansís, who form the great aboriginal caste of North-Eastern Bengal, number about 300,000 in the Brahmaputra valley. In Sylhet their place is taken by the Chandáls and Kaibarttas, who number respectively 122,457 and 128,525. A caste almost peculiar to Assam is the Kalitás, numbering 179,000. They formerly occupied the position of priests to the aboriginal tribes, before the arrival of Bráhmans in the Province. At present they are chiefly engaged in agriculture, but they claim to rank with the Káyasths of Bengal, and are generally treated with the consideration that belongs to a pure Súdra caste. The higher castes of Hindus are very weakly represented. The Bráhmans number 58,528 in Assam Proper, but many of these have degraded themselves by indiscriminate association with the low tribes. Jain merchants from North-Western India, under the name of Márwárí, Oswál, or Khatri, are to be found in every corner of the Province, possessing an entire monopoly of trade and capital; but their total number is insignificant.

The religious classification shows—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 2,679,507, or 64·85 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 1,104,601, or 26·73 per cent.; Buddhists, 1621, or ·04 per cent.; Christians, 1947, or ·05 per cent.; 'others,' 344,443, or 8·33 per cent. The majority of the Hindus belong to the Vaishnav sect, which includes the Mahápurúshiás, a religious body founded by Sankar, a pupil of the great Chaitanya, in the 15th century, whose headquarters are in Kámrúp District. The great bulk of the Musalmáns are to be found in Sylhet, where they number 854,131, being almost equally numerous with the Hindus. Both in Assam Proper and in Sylhet, the Musalmáns evidently belong to the same ethnical stock as the rest of the population. They are descended from converts made at the time of the various Mughal invasions, and at the present day, Islám does not make much progress. The few Buddhists are for the most part Khámtís, a tribe of Burmese origin settled on the frontiers of Lakhimpur. Of the total number of Christians, 638 are Europeans and 101 Eurasians, leaving 1208 for the native converts, many of whom are imported labourers from Chutiá Nágpur, working on the tea-gardens of Upper Assam and Cachar. The Christian missions are most successful among the aboriginal inhabitants of the hill tracts.

Occupation.—The population of Assam is entirely rural. All alike depend for their livelihood upon agriculture. Not a single town contains a large commercial or industrial element. The Census Report returns 23 places as each having a population of more than 5000; but the only ones among these deserving the name of towns are Sylhet, with 16,846 inhabitants, Gauháti with 11,492, and Goálpára with 6061. These three towns, and also Silchar, have been formed into municipal

unions. In the year 1876-77, the total municipal income was £5661, showing an average rate of taxation of 3s. per head.

Agriculture.—The one staple crop in all parts of Assam is rice. In the valley of the Brahmaputra, three crops are grown in the year: (1) the *sálí*, or winter crop, corresponding to the *áman* of Bengal; (2) the *ahú* or *áus*, sown on comparatively high lands; and (3) the *báo*, or marsh-rice, which corresponds to the *boro* of Bengal. Of these the *sálí* furnishes by far the larger portion of the food supply. In the Surmá valley, the same three crops of rice are grown, and called by their Bengálí names. The other crops include mustard-seed in abundance, chiefly sown on marshy tracts, pulses to but a small extent, sugar-cane, Indian corn, betel-nut and betel-leaf, and tobacco. The cultivation of jute is confined to Sylhet and Goálpára Districts, and that of cotton to the hill tracts. The aboriginal races universally follow the nomadic mode of agriculture known as *júm*, which is extremely destructive to the forests. They roughly clear a piece of primeval jungle by burning down the vegetation; among the ashes they dibble holes with their *daos* or hill-knives, and drop into them indiscriminately seeds of rice, mustard, and cotton, reaping each crop in succession as it comes to maturity. After the natural fertility of the soil has been exhausted by the crops of two or three years, the spot is abandoned for a fresh clearing. Potatoes, oranges, pine-apples, and *tezpát* or bay leaves are grown in the Khási and Jaintiá Hills for the Calcutta market. The soil of Assam is extremely fertile. Neither manure nor irrigation is required, as the rivers rarely fail to overflow their banks and deposit a fresh top-dressing of silt every year. There is abundance of waste land on all sides waiting for tillage. The pressure of the population is at present very light. The revenue demand is comparatively low, and is levied in a manner most convenient to the cultivators. No landlords intervene between the Government and the actual tillers of the soil; and, as a rule, this latter class is not deeply in debt. Labour is in great demand on the tea plantations, at exorbitant rates of wages. With all these natural advantages, the cultivators of Assam cannot be otherwise than prosperous. They raise nearly every article of domestic consumption from their own fields, and live in ease and independence. But they are not an industrious race. They produce no great staples for export, and do not even care to grow more rice than is sufficient for their own families. With the single exception of Sylhet, which geographically belongs to Bengal, every other District of Assam annually requires to import large quantities of rice and other grain, in order to feed the labouring population employed on the tea-gardens. According to the latest returns for 1875-76, out of a total area of 30,660 square miles in the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys, only 7200, or 23 per cent., are cultivated; while 17,713, or 57 per cent., are waste but cultivable. As

throughout the rest of India, the State is the superior landlord of the soil. In Sylhet and in the greater part of Goálpára, which originally were included within Bengal, the Permanent Settlement is in force. In Cachar the settlement is made for a term of years with the *mirásdárs.* Throughout the rest of Assam the land settlement is effected in the method known as *mauzáwárí*, in accordance with which the *mauzádár*, or village revenue official, annually assesses the cultivated lands of his village with the individual cultivators. The rates of rent at present in force are the following:—For *básti*, or homestead and garden land, 6s. an acre; for *rupit*, or low-lying land on which the *sálí* rice is grown, 3s. 9d. an acre; for *pharinghátí*, or high land on which the *áus* rice and most other crops are grown, 3s. an acre.

Natural calamities on a scale sufficiently large to affect the general harvest are almost unknown in Assam. The only famines recorded in local tradition are those caused by the depredations of the Burmese in the early years of the present century, when anarchy prevailed to such an extent that whole Districts were depopulated. Blights, locusts, droughts, and floods occasionally occur, and of these, floods do the most mischief. But no preventive measures in the form of irrigation works or embankments are anywhere required. In the event of a widespread local failure of the crops, the means of importation from Bengal are sufficient to prevent scarcity from reaching the famine point.

Tea Cultivation.—The cultivation and manufacture of tea, conducted with European capital and under European supervision, forms the one great commercial industry of Assam. The tea-gardens occupy only a very small area, but they are the principal source of wealth to the Province, and supply the chief stimulants to its development. The first discovery of the tea-plant growing wild in Upper Assam, in 1823, is generally assigned to Mr. Robert Bruce, who had proceeded thither on a mercantile exploration. The country, however, then formed part of the Burmese dominions. But war with this monarchy shortly afterwards broke out, and a brother of the first discoverer having been appointed in 1826 to the command of a flotilla of gunboats, followed up the subject, and obtained several hundred plants and a quantity of seed. Some specimens were ultimately forwarded to the superintendent of the Botanic Garden at Calcutta. In 1832 Captain Jenkins was deputed by the Governor-General of India, Lord William Bentinck, to report upon the resources of Assam, and the tea-plant was brought to his especial notice by Mr. Bruce. In 1834 Lord William Bentinck recorded a minute, stating that his attention had been called to the subject previous to his having left England to take up the Governor-Generalship, and appointing a committee to prosecute inquiries, and to promote the cultivation of the plant. Communications were opened with China with a view to obtain fresh plants and seeds, and a deputation, composed of

gentlemen versed in botanical studies, was despatched to Assam. Seed was obtained from China; but it proved of small importance, as the committee ascertained that the tea-plant was indigenous in Assam, and might be multiplied to any extent. Another result of the Chinese mission, the procuring of persons skilled in the cultivation and manufacture of black tea, was of more material benefit. Subsequently, under Lord Auckland, a further supply of Chinese cultivators and manufacturers was obtained—men well acquainted with the processes necessary for the production of green tea, as the former set were with those requisite for black. Government undertook the experimental introduction of tea-planting into Assam. In 1835 the first tea-garden was opened at Lakhimpur. In 1838 the first twelve chests of tea from Assam were received in England. They had been injured in some degree on the passage; but on samples being submitted to brokers, the reports were highly favourable. It was never, however, the intention of Government to carry on the trade, but to resign it to private enterprise as soon as the experimental cultivation proved successful. Mercantile associations for the planting and manufacture of tea in Assam began to be formed in 1839; and in 1840 Government made over its experimental establishment to the Assam Tea Company. In 1851 the crop of this Company was estimated at 280,000 lbs. In 1854, gardens were opened in Darrang and Kámrúp; and in 1855 the plant was discovered growing wild in Cachar. During the next ten years, capital flowed into the business from all quarters. Land was recklessly taken up, to be sold to speculators in England for extravagant sums; and tea-growing for a time fell into the hands of stock-jobbers and bubble companies. The crash came in 1866; and for the next few years this promising industry lay in a condition of extreme depression. About 1869 matters began to mend; and tea cultivation, now established on a sound basis, is making legitimate progress year by year. The returns for 1871 showed 11,475,398 lbs. of tea manufactured in Assam, against 9,511,517 in 1870, making an increase of 1,963,881 lbs. in one year. The area of land taken up for tea plantations was, in 1871, 474,939 acres, of which 54,384 were reported to be under cultivation. According to the returns of 1874, the area taken up had increased to 626,000 acres, of which about 100,000 were actually under tea. The total out-turn was estimated at 19,000,000 lbs.; the average out-turn per acre of mature plant is about 280 lbs., but as many as 800 lbs. per acre have been plucked on certain gardens.

Importation of Coolies.—The deficiency of labour in the Assam valley has developed an important system of coolie emigration from Bengal. With the exception of the Cacharis, the natives of Assam are too indolent or too well-to-do to accept regular employment, even at high rates of wages; and a tradition has been handed down from the

days of their Aham taskmasters that it is degrading to work for others. The average monthly number of labourers employed on the tea-gardens of Assam during 1871 was 54,326, of whom upwards of 38,000 were imported under the Labour Transport Acts, chiefly from the western districts of Lower Bengal. On those gardens which furnished returns in 1874 there were 289 Europeans employed, and an average monthly number of 84,394 labcurers, of whom 54,787 were brought under the Labour Transport Act from Bengal. It is calculated that a sum of £250,000 is annually expended in the province in connection with this industry.

The land best suited for the plant is the virgin soil of the dense forests at the foot of the hills, where the climate is hot and moist. This soil is to be found in every district of Assam; but by far the largest number of gardens are in the four districts of Cachar, Lakhimpur, Sibságar, and Darrang. The land is held either on long leases under Government, or by a fee-simple tenure.

Manufactures, etc.—The only thriving native industry in Assam is the weaving of coarse silk cloth. This cloth is of two kinds—*eriá* and *mugá;* the former being the produce of a worm fed on the castor-oil plant, or *enri* (Ricinus communis); the latter of a worm fed on the *súm* tree (Machilus odoratissima), which grows wild in the jungle. Cotton cloth, brass-ware, pottery, ivory ornaments, and the ordinary utensils are also manufactured; but the indigenous manufactures of Assam have suffered greatly from the competition of the cheaper articles imported from Bengal. In Sylhet there are specialties of *sitalpáti* or grass mats, shell bracelets, ivory mats and fans, and inlaid iron-ware.

The external commerce of Assam is entirely conducted by water. Both of the two main rivers, the Brahmaputra and Surmá, are navigable by steamers. According to the returns of the Bengal registration of river trade in 1876-77, the total exports from Assam in that year were valued at £3,621,787, including—Tea, £2,227,640; mustard-seed, £413,631; timber, £335,210; raw cotton, £97,350; lime and limestone (from Sylhet), £74,211; rice and paddy (also from Sylhet), £87,410; caoutchouc, £51,060; jute, £44,398; lac and lac dye, £66,013. The imports were valued at £1,229,941, including—Piece-goods, £427,200; cotton twist, £25,053; salt, £218,277; rice, £104,673; gram and pulse, £34,487; sugar, £71,396; metals, £91,201; liquors, £47,633. The exports of tea and caoutchouc, and the imports of piece-goods, cotton twist, rice, sugar, and liquor, were chiefly carried by steamer; the rest by country boats. Local trade is monopolized by the Márwárí merchants, who are to be found in every corner of the Province, except in the Khási Hills, where the natives keep to themselves the profits made from their valuable exports. Annual or weekly fairs are held along all the frontiers of the Province,

and have now created a mutually profitable intercourse with the hill tribes.

In the year 1875-76 the total length of navigable rivers was returned at 3889 miles; there were also 508 miles of first-class roads, 1406 second-class, and 1361 third-class. There are no railroads or canals in the Province. The two most important lines of road are: (1) the one recently completed for wheeled traffic from Gauháti to Shillong,—a triumph of engineering skill; (2) the road running along the south bank of the Brahmaputra, which crosses the river at Dhubri, in Goalpára District, and there connects with the main system of roads in Northern Bengal. This road was planned on a scale of great magnificence, but owing to want of funds the original scheme remains only half completed.

The police force in 1875 numbered 3352 officers and men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £61,236. These figures show one policeman to every 12 square miles, or to every 1233 of the population, the average cost being £1, 9s. per square mile and 3½d. per head of population. The village watch, or *chaukídárs*, are only found in the Districts of Sylhet, Goálpára, and Cachar; they are supported by contributions from the villagers. A municipal police is maintained in the towns of Gauháti, Sylhet, and Silchar, numbering 81 men, at a cost of £961. Of the regular police, 118 officers and 987 men form a well-drilled and armed force, employed as frontier guards in the hill tracts. In 1875, the total number of cognisable cases inquired into was 7887. The number of persons put on their trial was 7384, of whom 4464, or 60·45 per cent., were convicted, being one person in every 520 of the population. In addition, 1002 non-cognisable cases were instituted, in which 8520 persons were arrested or summoned, and 5310, or 63·32 per cent., convicted. There are 9 District jails and 10 lock-ups in the Province. In 1875, the average daily prison population was 1335, or one person always in jail to every 3095 of the population. The daily average number of sick was 50, or 3·7 per cent.; the total number of deaths 66, or 55·5 per 1000. The aggregate gross expenditure was £16,002, or £11, 18s. per prisoner. The jail manufactures realized a net profit of £945.

Administration.—The administration of the Province is entrusted to a Chief Commissioner, acting immediately under the orders of the Government of India. Directly subordinate to him are eleven Deputy-Commissioners—one for each District—who conduct the various departments of the fiscal, executive, and in some cases judicial administrations. These posts are filled in accordance with what is known as the non-regulation system, being open to military officers and uncovenanted civilians, with the exception of Sylhet, which is reserved for a covenanted servant. There are two judges—one for Assam Proper, and the other

for the two Districts of the Surmá valley. The heads of departments include an Inspector of Schools, a Deputy-Conservator of Forests, a Superintending Engineer of Public Works, and an Inspector of Labourers in Upper Assam. One chaplain on the list of the Bengal establishment officiates at both Gauháti and Shillong. The military force stationed in the Province in 1876 consisted of four native infantry regiments, with a total strength of 26 British officers and 2959 men of all ranks.

The chief items of revenue and expenditure in 1875-76 are shown in the following table :—

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF ASSAM PROVINCE IN 1875-76.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
Land revenue,	£332,814	Land revenue,	£73,750
Forests,	10,730	Forests,	6,188
Excise,	141,456	Excise,	1,119
Stamps,	51,572	Stamps,	908
Post office,	10,943	Post office,	12,874
Law and justice,	8,514	Administration,	16,634
Local funds,	26,770	Minor departments,	2,249
Municipalities,	9,854	Law and justice,	48,322
Registration,	1,729	Ecclesiastical,	1,214
Jails,	2,816	Medical,	8,275
Education,	2,159	Political agencies,	1,980
Police,	384	Allowances and assignments,	5,750
Public works,	757	Superannuations,	3,317
Telegraph department,	2,109	Refunds and drawbacks,	4,627
Miscellaneous,	5,394	Local funds,	38,496
		Municipalities,	3,820
Total,	£608,001	Military department,	85,191
		Jails,	11,277
		Education,	17,570
		Police,	58,034
		Public works,	77,373
		Printing,	3,153
		Model farm,	1,400
		Registration,	1,100
		Miscellaneous,	8,354
		Total,	£492,985

Education has only begun to make any progress in Assam within the past few years. In 1875-76 there were altogether 1293 schools in the Province, attended by a total of 31,462 pupils, showing one school to every 32·27 square miles and 7 pupils to every 1000 of the population. The total expenditure was £26,012, of which £7584 was subscribed by the public, and the remainder granted from provincial and local funds. In that year, 53 candidates were sent up to the examinations of the Calcutta University, of whom only 13 passed. There are 9 higher English schools, of which the Gauháti School alone teaches up to the standard of the First Arts Examination; 32 middle schools where English is taught, 60 middle vernacular schools, and 981 primary schools. The girls' schools number 40, with 906 pupils, of whom the majority are

under the charge of the Welsh Calvinist Mission in the Khási Hills. Assam has 12 normal schools, and 3 institutions for technical instruction. There are 4 printing-presses in the Province; 3 newspapers are published.

Medical Aspect.—The climate of Assam, both in the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys, is noted for its excessive humidity. The rainy season begins about March, and lasts till the middle of October. In the Brahmaputra valley, the morning fog is a special characteristic of the cold weather. It rises from the river at daybreak, and often does not clear away till nearly mid-day. The prevalent direction of the wind in both valleys is from the north-east. Earthquakes are of common occurrence. In January 1869, and again in September 1875, there were shocks of great severity, which did much damage at Silchar and Gauháti. The average rainfall registered during the five years ending in 1876 varied from 159 inches in Sylhet to 60 inches in Kámrúp. The rainfall in the hill tracts is much heavier. At Cherrapoonjee (Chárá-punjí), in the Khási Hills, which enjoys the distinction of having the heaviest rainfall in all India, the recorded average during three years ending 1876 is 368 inches; but a total of 805 inches is said to have fallen in the year 1861—no fewer than 366 inches having poured down within the single month of July. The average mean temperature at Silchar is about 77° F., the range of variation being 32°. The climate of the higher ranges and plateaux in the hill tracts is very salubrious, the extremes of heat and cold being both unknown. At Shillong the average maximum temperature recorded during three years was 62·24°; the average minimum, 59·18°. Hoar-frost occasionally lies on the ground in the morning.

The sanitary condition of Assam is far from satisfactory, though some improvement has recently been effected by the clearing of jungle and the enforcement of conservancy arrangements in the towns. The gradual extension of cultivation appears to be the most hopeful method of driving away malaria. The most prevalent diseases are intermittent fevers, bowel complaints, cholera, small-pox, various skin disorders, and in some localities goitre. The general vital statistics of the Province are altogether untrustworthy. The returns from selected areas in 1874 show an average death-rate of 37·3 per 1000. In that year, out of a total of 42,591 deaths, 16,478 were assigned to cholera, 15,910 to fevers, and 5276 to bowel complaints. Vaccination has made some progress in Assam. In the year 1876-77, 68 vaccinators were employed under the supervision of the medical authorities. They performed 22,037 operations, chiefly in the Districts of Kámrúp and the Gáro Hills. In the same year, there were 16 charitable dispensaries in the Province, at which a total of 26,628 patients were treated, of whom 2356 were in-door patients. The total expenditure amounted to £2428, of which

Government contributed £809, exclusive of the cost of European medicines. The greater number of the cases were of malarious origin (including organic affections of the spleen and kidneys resulting therefrom), dysentery, diarrhœa, and cutaneous disorders.

Assaye (*Asái*).—Village and battle-field in the extreme north-east of the Nizám's Dominions, just beyond our Berar frontier. Lat. 20° 15′ 15″ N., long. 75° 56′ 15″ E.; 43 miles north-east of Aurangabad. On the 23d September 1803, Sir Arthur Wellesley found the Marhattás, under Sindhia and Raghojí Bhonsla, strongly posted on the tongue of land formed by the junction of the Juah and Káitná rivers, with their left resting on Assaye village. Their forces consisted of 16,000 disciplined infantry, of whom 10,500 had been drilled and were led by European officers; 20,000 cavalry; a noble park of artillery, 100 of the guns being served chiefly by French artillerymen; with irregular troops,—making an army of 50,000 men. General Wellesley had with him a force of only 4500 of all arms; Colonel Stevenson's force, which was to have joined him on the morrow, not yet having come up. But finding himself compelled to risk an engagement, he crossed the Káitná river near its junction with the Juah, and, after desperate fighting, pushed the enemy backwards down the tongue of land, and northwards across the Juah, with terrible slaughter. The battle consisted of a bayonet charge, a cavalry pursuit, a rally by the enemy which for a time imperilled the very existence of our army, another splendid charge by our troops, and their complete victory. The fight occupied the three hottest hours of the day, after a long march of 14 miles. The Marhattá artillery was so well served by the French gunners that General Wellesley had to leave his own behind, owing to loss of men and bullocks during the first minutes of the advance. He put himself at the head of the line, pushed the enemy across the river at the point of the bayonet, and rushed after them. But a number of Marhattás, who had thrown themselves on the ground around or under their guns, and been passed by as dead, suddenly arose and turned their artillery upon our pursuing troops. At the same time masses of the Marhattá cavalry began to close in upon our scattered regiments. General Wellesley led a magnificent cavalry charge back across the river, re-captured the guns, snatched our army from destruction, and secured the victory. A second and more bloody pursuit followed. Sindhia and Raghojí Bhonsla had fled early in the fight, but their artillery, trained by De Boigne, stood by their guns to the last. Of the enemy, 12,000 were killed or wounded, and General Wellesley lost 1657—one-third of his little force—killed or wounded. Assaye proved the first overwhelming blow to the Marhattá confederacy. Sindhia's Prime Minister died of a wound received in the fight, and it was quickly followed by the battle of ARGAON, and the treaty of

Devagaon. A commemorative medal was struck in 1851, and presented to the few surviving officers and men.

Assiá.—Range of hills in Cuttack District, Bengal; containing very interesting Buddhist, Muhammadan, and Hindu remains of ancient temples, forts, caves, sculptures, etc. The principal hills are, Alamgir, with a Muhammadan mosque, built 1719 A.D.; Udáyagiri, with two large figures of Buddha, and extensive Buddhist ruins; Achála Basanta, also with numerous ruins; Bará Dehi, the highest peak in the range; Naltigiri, with its sandal-wood trees and famous antiquities, chief among which is the Elephant Cave; and Amravati Hill, with two beautiful images of Indráni.

Asurgarh Fort (Ruins of).—In Purniah District, Bengal; said to be named after Asura, one of five brothers, each of whom built himself a *garh* or fort here. The brothers are represented as having been Domkata Bráhmans, and to have lived about 57 B.C. The real history of the forts is involved in obscurity. Asurgarh is 4 miles from Dulálganj village, a little east of the Mahánandá, and covers an irregular space about 1200 yards in circumference.

Ata. — *Tahsíl* of Jalaun District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Betwa. Area in 1872, 444 square miles, of which 255 were cultivated; pop. 93,294; land revenue, £16,485; total revenue, £18,000; rental paid by cultivators, £32,601; incidence of revenue per acre, 1s. 1⅞d.

Atak. — *Tahsíl* and town, Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab. — *See* ATTOCK.

Atári.—Village and ruins in Mooltan (Multán) District, Punjab; 20 miles south-west of Talamba. At present an insignificant hamlet, but contains a ruined fortress, once evidently of great strength. General Cunningham identifies the site with the City of the Bráhmans, taken by Alexander in his invasion of India. The citadel is 750 feet square and 35 feet high, surrounded by a ditch, and having a central tower of 50 feet in height. On two sides stretch the remains of an ancient town, forming a massive mound covered with huge bricks, whose large size attests their great antiquity. No tradition exists as to the origin or history of these remains. The adjacent village is quite modern.

Atásarái (or *Islámpur*).—Trading village in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 9′ N., long. 85° 13′ E.; pop. (1872), 4621. Centre of tobacco trade in Behar Subdivision; thousands of *maunds* are brought annually from Tirhut, and collected in large store-rooms, whence they are distributed throughout the Districts of Patná, Gayá, and Hazáribágh.

Atcháveram (*Achapúram*).—Village in Tanjore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 38′ N., long. 79° 34′ 15″ E.; houses, 317; pop. (1871), 1667. The pagoda is notable for its defence, in 1749, against the Tanjore army.

Atcheepore.—Village, 24 Parganás, Bengal.—*See* ACHIPUR.

Ateha.—*Parganá* in Partabgarh District, Oudh. The most northerly *parganá* in the District, comprising an area of 79 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated. The landholding class are Kanhpuriás, who possess 56 out of the 68 villages which make up the *parganá*. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 42,228; Muhammadans, 2415; total, 44,643, of whom 22,197 are males and 22,446 females; average density of population, 565 per square mile. The northern or trans-Sái portion of the *parganá* possessed strong forts at Ateha, Sujákhar, and other places. The first of these was bravely defended by the rebels in 1858.

Athárabanká.—River in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; forms a portion of the boat route between Calcutta and the Eastern Districts, known as the Outer Sundarbans Passage. It enters the Bidyádharí river at Port Canning, and the united stream, together with that of the Karatoyá, which also joins the Bidyádharí at this place, flows southward through the Sundarbans as the MATLA RIVER, and falls into the Bay of Bengal under that name.

Athárabanká.—River in Jessor District, Bengal. A cross stream connecting the Madhumatí and the Bhairab rivers. It flows from north-east to south-west, leaving the Madhumatí at Chapálí, and falling into the Bhairab at Aláipur; 20 miles long; 220 yards wide in the rains; navigable throughout the year by large-sized cargo boats and river steamers.

Athára-murá.—Range of hills in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal; running north and south, and covered with bamboo and other low jungle. Lat. 23° 25′ to 24° N., long. 91° 43′ E. Principal peaks—Athára-murá, 1431 feet high; Churámain, 291 feet; Jári-murá, about 1500 feet; Tulá-murá and Chapu, each about 800 feet.

Athay-gyi (*Athay-gyee*).—Revenue circle in Bassein District, British Burma. Area, 15 square miles. Lies between the Bassein and Paibeng rivers on the east and west, and the Let-khút on the north. Towards the Bassein the country becomes undulating, and the soil gravelly; in the south it consists of low-lying plains. The river banks are fringed with broad belts of forest. Bassein town is partly within the limits of Athay-gyí. Gross revenue (1876), £690; pop. (1876), 1542, chiefly Burmans and Karengs employed in agriculture.

Athgarh.—One of the Tributary States of Orissa, lying between 20° 25′ 35″ and 20° 41′ 35″ N. lat., and between 84° 34′ 25″ and 85° 54′ E. long.; area, 168 square miles; pop. (1872), 26,366. Bounded on the north by Dhenkánal State; on the east by Cuttack District; on the south by the Mahánadí river, separating it from Cuttack on this side also; and on the west by the Tributary States of Tigariá and Dhenkánal. A low-lying level country, very subject to inundation. The cultivation consists of rice, with an occasional crop of sugar-cane.

In ancient times Athgarh belonged to the kings of Orissa, one of whom married the sister of his prime minister, and bestowed the State with the title of Rájá on his brother-in-law. The present ruler (1876), Rájá Srí Karan Bhágirathí Bawártá Patnáik, who is about thirty-one years old, is the tenth in descent, and belongs to the Káyasth or writer caste. He maintains a military force of 262 men, and a rural police of 115. The State yields him an income estimated at £1493 a year; the tribute annually paid to the British Government is £280. The Rájá supports a school, and there is another village school, or *páthsálá*, in the State. The population of 26,366 persons dwells in 191 villages, and 4699 houses. The males number 13,128, or 49·8 per cent. of the population. Average density of the population, 157 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·13; persons per village, 138; houses per square mile, 28; persons per house, 5·6. The ethnical division of the people is returned as follows:—Aboriginal tribes, 4336, almost all (3555) Savars; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 3009, chiefly Páns (2321); Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin, 18,878, or 71·6 per cent. of the population, the most numerous being the Chásá, or principal cultivating caste, of whom there are 5235; Muhammadans, 143. The residence of the Rájá is at ATHGARH village; but the principal village, and the only one in the State containing more than 100 houses, is Gobrá (lat. 20° 35′ 2″ N., long. 85° 22′ 28″ E.). Between Gobrá and Athgarh is the village of CHHAGAN, with a native Christian colony. The high road from Cuttack to Sambalpur passes through Athgarh State; and the Mahánadí river, which forms the southern boundary, also affords a means of communication and a trade route. At present, however, no trade is carried on.

Athgarh.—Village of the Tributary State of the same name, and residence of the Rájá; situated on the Cuttack and Sambalpur road. Lat. 20° 31′ 30″ N., long. 85° 40′ 31″ E. The Rájá's dwelling is buried in bamboo thickets, originally planted as a defence against the Marhattá horse.

Athirála.—Shrine on the Cheyair river, in Cuddapah District, Madras. The sanctity of this spot centres in the pond attached to the temple. According to the local belief, its waters cleanse from the most heinous crimes, as illustrated by the purification of Parasu Ráma (one of the incarnations of Vishnu) from the sin of matricide. The festival of Sivárátrí, celebrated here during three days in the middle of February, attracts many thousands of pilgrims. The temple has an endowment of £83 per annum.

Athmallik.—One of the Tributary States of Orissa, lying between 20° 36′ 55″ and 21° 5′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 18′ 20″ and 84° 50′ 30″ E. long.; area, 730 square miles; pop. (1872), 14,536. It is bounded on the north by the State of Rádhákol in the Central

Provinces; on the east by Angul; on the south by the Mahánadí river, which separates it from Bod; and on the west by the States of Sonpur and Rádhákol in the Central Provinces. The country is for the most part covered with dense jungle; a long range of hills, clothed with forest, runs along its southern side, parallel with the course of the Mahánadí. What little cultivation there is consists of coarse rice and other inferior grains, with a few oil-seeds. The State yields its chief, Jagendra Sáont (who has no legal claim to the title of Rájá, although it is usually accorded him in courtesy), an estimated income of £710; the annual tribute paid to the British Government is £48. The chief maintains a militia and police of 18 men; he also supports a school. The population of 14,536 persons inhabits 209 villages, and 2897 houses. The males number 7567, or 52 per cent. of the population. Average density of the population, 20 per square mile (Athmallik being the most sparsely populated of all the Orissa Tributary States); villages per square mile, ·28; persons per village, 70; houses per square mile, 4; persons per house, 5. The ethnical division of the people is returned as follows:—Aboriginal tribes, 2840, of whom 1427 are Gonds and 1112 Kandhs; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 1847, mostly Páns (1075); Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin, 9784, or 67·3 per cent. of the population, the most numerous castes being the Chásás, of whom there are 2332, the Suds (2264), and the Darnal Goálás (1707); Muhammadans, 65, or 4 per cent. of the population. The residence of the chief is at Handápá, in the centre of the State (lat. 20° 56′ 40″ N., long. 84° 43′ 41″ E.); but the chief village, and the only one in the State containing more than 100 houses, is Káintá, on the north bank of the Mahánadí. No trade is carried on in the State.

Athni.—Chief town of the Athni Subdivision in Belgaum District, Bombay. Lat. 16° 43′ 45″ N., long. 75° 6′ 30″ E.; pop. (1877), 11,588; municipal revenue (1874-75), £720; rate of taxation, 1s. 5¼d. per head of the population (9988) within municipal limits. Athni is a place of increasing importance as a local centre of trade. Its wheelwrights are known as excellent workmen, and it has manufactures of coarse cotton cloth, native blankets, and saltpetre. It is the chief rural market in Belgaum District, sending cotton and grain westwards to Miraj (24 miles), and receiving from the sea-coast through Miraj, rice, cocoa-nuts, and dried fish. There is a sub-judge's court, a dispensary, and a post office.

A-thút (*A-thoot*).—Revenue circle in Bassein District, British Burma. Area, 84 square miles. The northern portion consists of undulating ground, covered with good timber; the remainder of low wastes, subject to inundation. Gross revenue (1876), £1806; pop. (1876), 4528, chiefly engaged in the numerous lake and pond fisheries of this tract.

A-thút (*A-thoot*).—Tidal river in Bassein District, British Burma; rises in the Kyúnlaha lake or swamp, and after a south-westerly mean-

dering course through plains sparsely covered with forests, falls into the Khún-khabo above Bhúrathún-tshú. Navigable for 15 miles from its mouth during the rains; in the dry season the A-thut is divided off into fisheries.

Atiá.—Subdivision of Maimansinh District, Bengal, lying between 23° 57′ 30″ and 24° 49′ N. lat., and between 89° 43′ and 90° 16′ 15″ E. long.; area, 1041 square miles; pop. (1872), 536,201, comprising 350,696 Muhammadans, 185,016 Hindus, and 489 Christians and others; number of villages, 1917; of houses, 73,338. It contains the three *thánás*, or police circles, of Pingná, Madhupur, and Atiá.

Atmakúr.—*Táluk* in Nellore District, Madras. Area, 618 square miles; houses, 18,855; pop. (1871), 103,802, being 53,541 males and 50,261 females. Hindus, 97,049, being 39,325 Sivas, 56,929 Vaishnavs; Muhammadans, 6743, being 6049 Sunis, 174 Shias, 7 Wahábis; no Christians, Buddhists, or Jains. Revenue (1870-71), £25,317. Chief towns—Atmakúr, population 3424; Kalavaya, 3493; Chijerla, 2266; Mahimalur, 2606; and Anantasagaram, 3086. The *táluk* is divided by the Pennér river, which, with the Boggeru, irrigates 10 per cent. of the arable land. Indigo is largely grown on the river banks. There are several fine tanks, those of ANANTASAGARAM and Kalavaya being specially noteworthy. The chief antiquities of the *táluk* are the temples at Somisilla, Kotitirtham, Kalavaya, Mahimalur, and Chijerla, the fort and pagodas of Prabhagiripatuam, and the mosque of ANAMASAMUDRAPET.

Atmakúr.—Town in Nellore District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 3424. The destined headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

At-pádi.—Town in the State of Aundh, included within the boundaries of Satara District, Bombay. Lat. 17° 25′ 25″ N., long. 74° 59′ E.; pop. (1872), 6531.

Atrái.—A river of Northern Bengal, by which the waters of the TISTA found their way to the Ganges before the great change in the course of the Tístá in 1787-88. Assuming its name at a point close to the northern boundary of Dinájpur, it flows in a southerly direction through that District, and then south-east through Rájsháhí and a small portion of Pábná, finally joining the Ganges in the latter District, having previously taken the name of the BARAL. Since the diversion of the waters of the old Tístá into the Brahmaputra, the Atrái has suffered considerably as a navigable channel, but in its upper reaches it still allows of the passage of boats of about 2 tons burthen during the dry season, and in the rains it is navigable by vessels of about 35 tons. The country through which it flows is level, and the stream very sluggish. Chief tributary, the JAMUNA; smaller feeders, the Kastuákhárí, Sátkhariá, Khárí, Darná, Irábatí, Nagar, and Phuljhur. Total length, more than 250 miles.

Atranji Kherá.—Prehistoric mound in Etah District, North-Western Provinces; 10 miles north of Etah, and 15 miles south of Soron. Lat. 27° 40′ N., long. 78° 45′ 15″ E. Its surface is covered with fragments of statues and broken bricks of large size. Ancient coins are frequently found among the ruins. A temple of Mahádeo and five *lingams* stand upon the mound, and all the sculpture is of Bráhman origin. General Cunningham identifies Atranji Kherá with the site of Pi-lo-chan-na, visited by the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Hiouen Thsang in the 7th century A.D. Local tradition connects the ruins with the capital of Rájá Ben, who was defeated by Shahab-ud-dín Ghori in 1193, while his fort and city were blown into the air by the Muhammadan conqueror; but many inconsistencies in the story, and especially the mention of gunpowder in the 12th century, render this tradition untrustworthy.

Atrauli.—A *tahsíl* of Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the right bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Area, 226,371 acres, of which 150,305 are cultivated, and 73,406 irrigated; pop. (1872), 157,374; number of villages, 294; land revenue, £29,218; total revenue, £33,572. Rental paid by cultivators, £53,796; incidence of revenue per acre, 2s. 6⅞d.

Atrauli.—Municipal town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 28° 1′ 50″ N., long. 78° 19′ 40″ E.; area, 163 acres; pop. (1872), 15,941, comprising 9829 Hindus and 6112 Muhammadans. Situated on the road from Aligarh to Rámghát, and 16 miles distant from the former town. Well built, clean, and healthy; *tahsíli*, police station, post office, and school. Small trade in local produce. Founded about the 12th century. Centre of local disaffection during the Mutiny of 1857. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1135; from taxes, £888, or 1s. 1½d. per head of population (15,622) within municipal limits.

Atrauli.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 11 miles north-east from Sandíla. Pop. (1869), 2651, principally Báis Kshattriyas, whose ancestors are said to have wrested it, with 80 other villages, from the Gaurs, about nine generations ago. Weekly market and Government school.

Atri.—Village and police station in Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 55′ 5″ N., long. 85° 17′ 40″ E. Police force, 1 sub-inspector and 9 constables. Distance from Behar, 28 miles south-west.

Atsanta.—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 5846.

A-tsí or **A-tsee** (*Atsen*).—Revenue circle in Amherst District, British Burma; situated on the coast, south of the mouth of the Re river. The Eria odoratissima (*Talaing-'Atsee'*), a sweet-scented orchid, is a common parasite on the trees in this circle. Land revenue (1876), £271; capitation tax, £127; pop. (1876), 1185, chiefly Talaings.

Attaran (*Ahtaran*).—River in Amherst District, British Burma, formed by the junction of the Zamie and Wengraw rivers. It falls into the Salween river at Maulmain. Narrow, deep, and sluggish; course north-west; navigable for nearly its whole length. The teak forests on the banks of the Zamie and Wengraw are now nearly exhausted. There are several hot springs on the Attaran, the most important being those at Attaran Reboo, in AMHERST DISTRICT.

Attári.—Village in Amritsar District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 2591. Lies on the Grand Trunk Road; railway station on Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line. Founded by Gaur Sinh, a Ját of the Sidhu tribe. His descendants, the Sardárs of Attári, still reside in the village. The family was of great importance under the early Síkh commonwealth, and afterwards under Ranjít Sinh. Their present representative, an honorary magistrate, enjoys large estates in the neighbourhood.

Attikuppa.—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore State. Area, 371 square miles; pop. (1871), 46,182; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £11,365, or an average of 3s. 3d. per cultivated acre. Fertile black and red soil, on which are cultivated rice, plantains, and garden produce; manufactures of cotton cloth and silk articles.

Attikuppa ('*Heap of Wild Fig*').—Municipal village in Hassan District, Mysore State, and headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name. Lat. 12° 41′ N., long. 76° 33′ E.; pop. (1871), 1616.

Attili (*Atri*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 41′ 10″ N., long. 81° 38′ 36″ E.; pop. (1871), 5878; houses, 961. Situated on one of the navigable Godávari canals. A centre of wet-crop cultivation.

Attock (*Atak*).—*Tahsíl* in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying along the left bank of the Indus, and containing the rocky range known as the Attock Hills.

Attock (*Atak*).—Municipal town and fortress in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 33° 53′ 15″ N., long. 72° 16′ 45″ E.; pop. (1868), 1454. The fort is situated on a commanding height (lat. 33° 53′ 29″ N., long. 72° 17′ 53″ E.) overhanging the Indus, almost opposite the point where it receives the Kábul river. Below their junction, a dangerous whirlpool eddies between two jutting precipices of black slate, known as Kamália and Jalália, from the names of two famous Roshnái heretics, who were flung from their summits during the reign of Akbar. The buildings of the town stood formerly within the fort, but have been removed to a lower site beneath it. The Emperor Akbar here established a ferry, and built the fortress in 1583. The Muhammadan historians call it Atak Benares, in contradistinction to Katak Benares in Orissa, at the opposite extremity of the empire. Ranjít Sinh occupied the post in 1813; and it remained thenceforth

in the hands of the Síkhs till the British conquest in 1849. It is now held by a considerable European detachment, including a battery of artillery. Attock forms an important post on the military road to the frontier. During eight months of the year a bridge of boats is maintained across the Indus, and for the remaining four months the passage is effected by a ferry. The bridge on the Northern State Railway is now (1878) in course of construction. The town contains a court-house, police station, staging bungalow, two *saráis*, church, school-house, and dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £308; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 11d. per head of population (3212) within municipal limits.

Atúr.—*Táluk* in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 11° 19′ to 11° 52′ N., long. 77° 44′ to 78° 55′ E.; area, 780 square miles (499,200 acres); the acreage liable to revenue is distributed as follows:—Government villages, 310,254; hill ranges, 10,138; Mitta and Shrotriem villages, 9613 acres. The extent actually under cultivation is 131,708 acres, paying £24,363. Population (according to the Census of 1871), 164,006, being 80,256 males and 83,750 females. Classified according to religions, there are 160,033 Hindus, including Sivaites (107,777), Vishnuvites (57,746), and Lingayats (504); 2650 Muhammadans, being Sunnis (2365) and Shiás (36); 1323 Christians (chiefly Roman Catholics), all but 12 natives. Four-fifths of the whole are engaged in agriculture, and very poor. Houses number 26,868 (the average of inmates per house being 6·4), grouped into 195 villages. The *táluk* is situated in the south-east of the District. Hill ranges surround it on three sides, and the Paithúr Malai range runs across the *táluk*, dividing it into the two watersheds of the Vellár (or Vasishtanathi) and Swáthanathi rivers, which water the rich grain tracts on either side. Magnetic iron beds of great extent exist in the higher hill groups. These are the Periyá and Chinna Kalráyan, formerly under petty chiefs, but now held by Government on lease. The pagoda of Kari Ráman on the Periyá Hill is a shrine of great sanctity. The soil alternates in stretches of red loam and black alluvium, its fertility being in many parts greatly reduced by the excessive quantity of lime contained. *Varagu* on 'dry,' and paddy on 'wet' lands, form the staple of cultivation; but other grain crops—*rági*, *cholam*, wheat, etc.—are grown largely. Areca palms and palmyras are cultivated along the river drainage lines, and cotton occupies a large proportion of the black soil. The New Orleans plant has been tried with success. A grove of sandal-wood, flourishing near Válapádi, disproves the opinion that that tree requires a high elevation. Irrigation is carried on from all the rivers, 108 tanks, 132 minor reservoirs, and 7458 wells; irrigated area, 14,837 acres, assessed at £10,309, and producing crops valued at £47,478. The rates of assessment vary on 'dry' lands from 6d. to 10s. per

acre; on 'wet' lands from 3s. to 19s. The trunk road from Salem to Cuddalore intersects the *táluk*, and there are besides 89 miles of road. The chief towns are ATUR, Thamampatti, and Viragavúr; four other towns have a population over 2000. The Local Fund Board has established 7 schools in the *táluk*, which have an attendance of 250 scholars; the London Mission has 2 schools; and there are besides about 100 native schools or *pials*. Travellers' bungalows have been erected at Atúr, Válapádi, Thalaivásal. Twelve weekly and four annual fairs are held in the *táluk*.

Atúr (*Attin-ur*, 'The Village by the River:' *Athúr*).—Lat. 11° 35' 50" N., long. 78° 39' E.; pop. (1871), 8314; houses, 1371. Situated on the trunk road from Salem to Cuddalore, and on the Vasishthanathi river. Headquarters of the *tahsíldár*, and of the forest, public works, and police departments; has a charitable dispensary, post office, travellers' bungalow, two schools, and weekly market. Cart-making, iron-smelting, and the manufacture of indigo (four factories being at work) form the chief industries. Except in grain, the town has no trade, although there is much through traffic along the trunk road. The water of the river has a bad reputation. On the north bank stands a large fort, the ramparts of cut stone, with four bomb-proof chambers. Commanding, as it did, the pass from Salem to Sankaridroog, this fort was of importance in the wars with Haidar Alí. It was captured by the British in 1768, after the surrender of Salem; and during the war with Tippú was again occupied by British troops.

Atúr.—Town in Tinnevelly District, Madras. Lat. 8° 37' 30" N., long. 78° 6' 30" E.; pop. (1871), 5742; houses, 1449. Situated near the mouth of the Támrapúrni river.

Atúr.—Town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° 16' N., long. 77° 53' E.; pop. (1871), 7206; houses, 1358. Situated 10 miles south-west of Dindigul, in the centre of a highly cultivated tract.

Atwa Piparia.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; situated between the Kathna and Gumti rivers. A scantily populated jungle *parganá*. On the breaking up of the great Muhamdi estate, of which it formed part, many of the sub-holders obtained direct engagements for their villages; among them the father of Bhagwant Sinh, who held Atwa Piparia. The whole *parganá* was subsequently engrossed by Bhagwant; but in 1836 he lost part of it. In resentment, he went into rebellion, and for several years led a life of successful robbery. He had a fort at Atwa, on the Kathna river, situated amid dense jungle, from which he used to emerge at night, and commit raids and robberies of cattle on the neighbouring Districts. Colonel Sleeman relates how on one occasion, in 1841, this man, with 200 followers, completely defeated three companies of the King of Oudh's troops under a European officer, who had been despatched to effect his capture. He was sub-

sequently assassinated, and his head sent in triumph to the king. The estate was then put under the management of Captain Fáida Husáin Khán, an officer of the King of Oudh. On our annexation of Oudh the settlement was made with him, and a *tálukdárí sanad* granted, whereby he obtained a permanent and hereditary proprietary title to the *parganá*, which he still holds, with the exception of one village held by *kanúngos*. Area, 64 square miles, of which 23 are cultivated: pop. (1869), Hindus, 7819; Muhammadans, 977; total, 8796, of whom 4976 are males and 3820 females: number of villages, 32; average density of population, 137.

Aucimudi.—A plateau in the upper ranges of the Anaimalai Hills, Coimbatore District, Madras, averaging 7000 feet above the level of the sea, and enjoying a climate similar to that of Ootacamund (Utakamand). The plateau is uninhabited, except for occasional visits from ibex hunters or the Puliyars. This jungle tribe sell to the people of the plains great quantities of honey, which they obtain at a fearful risk by swinging themselves at night (when alone the formidable rock bees can be approached) by long chains of rattan rings over the precipices, to the face of which the honeycombs are attached. Between Aucimudi and the next plateau lies an extensive grassy plain watered by several streams.

Auckland Bay.—Bay on the coast of Mergui District, British Burma. Lat. 12° 10′ N., long. 98° 30′ E. Forms part of the Mergui Archipelago, the rocky islands of which guard its entrance.

Aughad.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Lat. 23° 55′ 40″ N., long. 72° 13′ 30″ E.; area, 2 square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £340. There are six chiefs, who pay a tribute of £174 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Aundh.—A non-tributary State (*Jágír*) within the Political Agency of Satara, in the Province of Deccan (Dakshin), Bombay, lying between 17° 6′ 15″ and 17° 34′ 15″ N. lat., and between 74° 16′ 15″ and 74° 52′ 30″ E. long.; estimated area, 213 square miles; pop. (1872), 68,335; estimated gross revenue derived from land tax and transit dues, £12,499. Products—wheat, the ordinary varieties of millet and pulse, and cotton; molasses, clarified butter, and oil are also prepared. There are 16 schools, with 448 pupils. The present (1875) chief is forty-two years of age. He is a Hindu of the Bráhman caste, named Shriniwás Pandit; his title is Panth Pratinidhi. This title, meaning 'Representation of the Rájá,' or 'Viceroy,' was held, with the office, by several Marhattá chiefs, under the descendants of Sivají, and eventually became hereditary in the family of the present holder. He pays no tribute to the British Government, and has an assignment of 6 per cent., or £192, on the revenue of some of his villages. He entertains a retinue of 262 foot soldiers and 20 horsemen. He

holds a *sanad* authorizing adoption, but the succession would seem to follow no fixed rule.

Aundh.—Chief town of the State of the same name; in political connection with the Bombay Presidency; 26 miles south-east of Satara. Lat. 17° 32′ 45″ N., long. 74° 22′ 30″ E.

Aurada.—One of the 6 sub-magistracies into which the Jeypore Agency, Vizagapatam District, Madras, is divided. Contains 297 of the Jeypore villages. Situated in 'Jeypore-below-the-Gháts,' and the headquarters of a considerable police force, besides the usual sub-magisterial establishments.

Auraíyá.—*Tahsíl* of Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces; extending on either side of the Jumna (Jamuná), the Chambal, and the Kuári Nadi, and much intersected by the ravines which run up from their beds. Area, 306 square miles, of which 175 are cultivated; pop. (1868), 108,549; land revenue, £20,981; total revenue, £22,132; rental paid by cultivators, £39,225; incidence of revenue per acre, 2s. 1¾d.

Auraíyá.—Town in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 26° 28′ N., long. 79° 33′ 15″ E.; area, 93 acres; pop. (1872), 6459, comprising 5628 Hindus and 831 Muhammadans. Lies on the road between Etáwah and Kálpi, 42 miles distant from the former town. Large, well-kept square, known as Humeganj; handsome market-place, two *saráis,* two fine mosques, numerous Hindu temples. Brisk and increasing trade with Jhánsi and Gwalior.

Aurangabad. — A Subdivision of Gayá District, Bengal, lying between 24° 29′ and 25° 7′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 2′ 30″ and 84° 46′ 30″ E. long.; area, 1246 square miles; pop. (1872), 391,264, comprising 347,221 Hindus, 43,978 Muhammadans, and 65 'others;' density of population, 314 per square mile; number of villages, 1728; of houses, 63,879. Contained in 1869 two courts, four *thánás,* and a total police force of 2233 men. Separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year returned at £4736. Principal towns and villages —DAUDNAGAR, AURANGABAD, and DEO.

Aurangabad.—Village on the Grand Trunk Road, in Gayá District, Bengal; headquarters of Subdivision of same name. Lat. 24° 45′ 3″ N., long. 84° 25′ 2″ E. Contains, besides the usual official buildings, a school, dispensary, and jail; also a distillery, at which native liquor is manufactured. Trade unimportant, consisting chiefly of food grains, oil-seeds, leather, lacquered ware, glass ware, and candles.

Aurangabad.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Magdapur *parganá,* on the east by the Kathna river, on the south by Sultanpur District, and on the west by the Gumti river. The town from which the *parganá* takes its name was one of the seats of

the great Sayyid *ráj* which once governed the country from Piháni to the Gogra; and it was here that the Sayyids were defeated and overthrown by the Gaur Kshattriyas. The *parganá* comprises two well-defined tracts of about equal size. The western half consists of high, arid, sandy plains, dotted with the poorest class of villages; the eastern tract contains villages of the first and second classes, with a *domat* soil of tolerable fertility. The principal landed proprietors are Musalmáns. Area, 116 square miles, of which 58 are cultivated: pop. (1869), Hindus, 27,086; Muhammadans, 1737; total, 28,823, of whom 15,881 are males and 12,942 females: number of villages, 113; average density of population, 248. The metalled road from Sitapur to Sháhjahánpur runs through the *parganá*.

Aurangabad.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; 28 miles north-east of Sitapur. Lat. 27° 47′ N., long. 83° 27′ E. Called after the Emperor Aurangzeb, in whose reign it was founded by Nawáb Sayyid Kharram. Tieffenthaler describes it as 'having a brick-built palace enclosed with a wall, and adjoining a wall of quadrangular ground plan, having hexagonal towers.' The palace, in a decayed condition, is still the residence of the descendants of the founder; but the fort is in complete ruins. The walls of one of the bastions are the only part standing; they have been repaired and converted into a police station. Pop. (1869), 1944 Hindus, and 898 Muhammadans—total, 2842. The village is Government property.

Aurangabad.—*Parganá*, Sitapur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Misrikh *parganá*, on the east by Kurauná *parganá*, and on the south and west by the Gumti river, which separates it from Hardoi District. A new *parganá*, dating from the British annexation. In Akbar's reign the lands were included in Nimkhár, which comprised 6 large *maháls*. Area, 60 square miles, or 38,302 acres, thus classified:—Cultivated, 24,806; cultivable, 8550; *maáfi*, 90; and barren, 4856 acres. Rate of Government land revenue on cultivated area, 2s. 5$\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre; on assessed area, 1s. 8$\frac{5}{8}$d. per acre; on total area, 1s. 5$\frac{3}{4}$d. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 17,105; Muhammadans, 2260; total, 19,365, of whom 10,070 are males and 9295 females: number of villages, 34; average density of population, 323 per square mile. The chief family is Muhammadan, owning 27 out of the 34 villages. It is noticeable that there are now no Rájput *zamíndárs* in the *parganá*, although prior to the reign of Aurangzeb it was owned by Panwár Rájputs.

Aurangabad.—Town, Sitapur District, Oudh; 4 miles east of Nímsár. The residence of *tálukdár* Mirzá Aga Ján, whose ancestor, Bahádur Beg, acquired the surrounding country as a *jágír* from the Emperor Aurangzeb, in whose honour he named the town. Pop. (1869), 3000. Large bi-weekly market, with considerable trade in

cotton and salt; annual value of sales, about £6600. Climate healthy; soil good. Government school.

Aurangabad.—Town in the Dominions of the Nizám of Hyderabad, near the north-west boundary; situated on the Dudhna river, a tributary of the Gódávari. Lat. 19° 54′ N., long. 75° 22′ E. Distance from Ahmednagar, 68 miles; from Bombay, 175 miles; and from Hyderabad, 270 miles. The population was estimated in 1825 at 60,000, but is reported to be smaller now. The town contains the ruins of many buildings, among which is a palace built by Aurangzeb, at present in a state of complete decay. The most interesting building is a mausoleum, also built by Aurangzeb, to contain the remains of a favourite daughter; it is said to resemble in a feeble way the Táj Mahal at Agra. Aurangabad was formerly the capital of an extensive Province of the same name, comprehending a considerable proportion of the old Deccan (Dakshin) kingdom of Ahmednagar.

Aurangabad Sayyid.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; 10 miles north-west of Bulandshahr. Pop. (1872), 4833. Post office, school, market. Founded A.D. 1704, by Sayyid Abdul Azíz, who ousted the turbulent Jaroliyas of the neighbourhood, with the permission of Aurangzeb, and called the new town after his patron's name. Founder's family still hold this and 15 other villages. Religious fair at Sayyid Abdul's tomb. Town surrounded by tanks, prejudicial to health after rainy season.

Auras.—Village, Unao District, Oudh; 26 miles north of Unao town, on the road to Sandíla. Lat. 26° 54′ N., long. 80° 33′ E.; pop. (1869), Hindus, 1330; Muhammadans, 47; total, 1377. Bi-weekly market; trade in grain, tobacco, vegetables, and English and country-made cloth. Manufactures of earthenware, and of gold and silver trinkets. Government school.

Ausgrám.—Considerable village, with police station, in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 31′ 15″ N., long. 87° 42′ 35″ E.

Ava.—The former capital of the Burmese Empire; in 21° 52′ N. lat., and 96° 1′ E. long. It is situated on the Irrawaddy (Irawadi), which is here 3282 feet broad, and sweeps past the city on the north. The Myt-nge, a rapid stream, 450 feet wide, defends it on the east, and joins the Irrawaddy close under its walls. From this river a canal has been dug, through which its waters flow on the south-east angle of the city, and are again brought into the same river. The deep and rapid torrent of the Myt-tha, an offshoot of the Myt-nge, and like it falling into the Irrawaddy, protects the south and west sides of the town. The city is divided into the outer and the inner town, both of which are fortified. A brick wall, 15½ feet high by 10 feet thick, with a shallow moat in front, and a bank of earth thrown up at an angle of 45° behind, surrounds the whole. A second and stronger wall, 20 feet

high, with a deeper and broader ditch, crossed by three causeways, and not fordable when full, and a teak-wood stockade protect the inner town, a square containing the royal palace, council chamber, hall of justice, and arsenal. The city and suburbs have a circumference of about $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles, but the huts of the inhabitants are scattered, and interspersed with waste spaces. Mr. Crawford stated that there were not more than half a dozen brick houses. Ava, like other Burmese towns, is adorned with numerous temples, of which the gilded spires present on a distant view a splendid and imposing appearance, which is far from being realized on a nearer inspection. The largest of these temples contains two distinct edifices, one in the ancient, the other in a modern form; the former contains an image of Gautama, not of marble, as Symes supposes, but of sandstone. It is in a sitting posture, and is 24 feet in height. The head is 8 feet in diameter. The temple called Maong-Ratna is celebrated as the one in which the public officers take, with solemn forms, the oath of allegiance. The temple called Mahamrat-muni was famous for its gilded pillars and splendid ceiling. Ava contains 11 markets or *bázárs*, composed of thatched huts and sheds, well supplied with country produce, and exhibiting for sale the wares of China and Lao, side by side with Manchester piece-goods and British woollens, earthenware, glass, etc. The town is in a declining state, and has no local industries of any importance. Ava comprehends, according to the political divisions of the Burmese Empire, the town of Sagaing, on the opposite shore of the Irrawaddy, and the town of AMARAPURA, 4 miles to the east. Sagaing extends along the bank of the Irrawaddy for more than a mile and a half, but is of inconsiderable breadth. It consists of mean houses thinly scattered among gardens and orchards, the principal trees in the latter consisting of fine old tamarinds. On the site of the town and its environs are innumerable temples, some of them old and ruinous, others modern. On the river face there is a brick wall about 10 feet in height, with parapet and embrasures, like that of Ava, and extending more than half a mile along the river. Ava was founded in 1364, and was, with interruptions, the usual capital until the foundation of AMARAPURA, in 1783. It was again made the capital from 1822 to 1837-38. Since that date, its importance has steadily declined. To each of the towns of Ava, Sagaing, and Amarapura are attached Districts, the two former of which extend 12 miles along the river, and are of equal breadth. The District of Amarapura is of similar size, so that Ava must be considered as not only the name of the former capital, but also of a large District, which covers an area of 288 miles, with a population estimated at 354,200 inhabitants. The city of Ava itself, when the capital, was supposed to contain not more than 50,000 inhabitants; and, according to Mr. Crawford, half that number would be

nearer the truth. In 1755, it had but 8000 or 9000 inhabitants, and has now probably fewer. [AVA, as a city beyond British India, lies outside the scope of this work. The foregoing brief description has therefore been condensed from the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, under the arrangement explained at the beginning of the article on Afghanistan. Colonel Yule, C.B., has also favoured me with some later information, which I have incorporated.]

Avani.—Village of great sanctity in Kolar District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 6′ 20″ N., long. 78° 23′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 190. It is the residence of a *gúrú* of the Smartha sect, and is associated with the mythical travels of the god Rámá; the festival held in his honour is annually attended by 40,000 people, and forms the occasion of a great cattle fair. The hill overhanging the village is reputed to have been the residence of the poet Valmiki, author of the Rámáyana.

Avati, or **Ahuti.**—Village in Kolar District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 18′ N., long. 77° 48′ E.; pop. (1871), 1314. First settlement of the Morasu Wokkalu, or seven immigrant farmers, who founded dynasties in Mysore during the 15th century.

Avináshi.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 11′ 30″ N., long. 77° 18′ 45″ E.; houses, 281; pop. (1871), 1019. Situated on a branch of the Noyel river, and on the Trunk Road, 28 miles north-east of Coimbatore, and 8 from the Tirúpur Railway Station, on the Madras S.W. line, known also as the 'Avináshi Road Station.' Formerly the headquarters of the *táluk*, but now only a Subdivisional station, with a deputy *tahsíldár*, sub-jail, police station, and District post office. Previous to the opening of the railway, it was a posting-stage on the road to the Nílgiris.

Avulapáli.—Range of hills in Cuddapah District, Madras; situated on the plateau above the Gháts. Highest peak, Avulapáli Drúg (3850 feet), at the point of junction of the Districts of Cuddapah and North Arcot with Mysore territory.

Awah.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces; 12 miles east of Jalesar. Lat. 27° 27′ 2″ N., long. 78° 31′ 47″ E.; area, 134 acres; pop. (1872), 5584. Lies on the road from Agra to Etah.

Ayakottá (*Tiacotay*, *Jacotta*, *Aikota*, *Ayikod*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 10° 37′ 15″ N., long. 76° 31′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 7458. Situated at the northern extremity of the island of Vaipin ('*Vypeen*'), 15 miles north from Cochin. A town of considerable antiquity, tradition relating that St. Thomas landed here. Until the cession of the Dutch Indies, it belonged to Holland. During the war with Tippú Sultán it was considered a point of strategical importance.

Ayakudi.—An estate (*zamíndárí*) in Madura District, Madras; area, 27,277 acres; pop. (1871), 20,305; houses, 3806. The Government land tax yields £1678.

Ayakudi.—Town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° 26′ 45″ N., long. 77° 35′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 11,965; houses, 2095. Situated about 34 miles north-west by west from Dindigul on the road to Palghát. Ayakudi is the headquarters of the estate (*zamíndárí*) of the same name.

Ayyankere, or **Dodda Madaga-kere.**—An artificial lake at the eastern base of the Baba Budan Hills, in Kadur District, Mysore State, formed by embanking the Veda river. Circumference, 7 miles; width of embankment, 1700 feet; greatest depth of water, 35 feet. The contents have been estimated at 207,900 cubic feet of water. The construction of this work is assigned to Rukmangada Ráya, a legendary king of Sakráypatna, and many traditions are connected with it. A shrine on the embankment contains an inscription dating back to the 13th century. The lake is studded with islands, and forms a scene of great beauty; but the outlets have fallen into disrepair, and now irrigate only 300 acres.

Azamgarh.—A British District of the Benares Division, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 38′ and 26° 27′ N. lat., and 82° 42′ 30″ and 84° 9′ 45″ E. long.; area, 2565 square miles; population in 1872, 1,531,482.

Physical Aspects.—The District forms part of the Gangetic plain. In general shape it is a triangle, the apex pointing eastward, with the river Gogra (Ghágra) or Sarju as its northern, and the Ghazipur District as its southern boundary, while its base to the west rests upon Oudh and the District of Jaunpur. It has an almost uniform height of 255 feet above the sea, the flatness of its surface being relieved only by the occasional difference of elevation between the old and the recent alluvial deposits of which its soil is composed, and by the ravines cut deeply into those soft strata by its numerous streams. As it has a gentle slope towards the south-east, the main drainage channels run in that direction. A natural line running east and west, and formed by the Kunwár *nadi* and the Tons river, cuts off the southernmost third of the District from the rest, and demarcates with some distinctness a natural division in the soil. The southern portion consists entirely of the old alluvium, typical of the Gangetic plain. The northern has in great part been formed by the more recent silting of the rivers in their later course. The southern portion is cut into strips lying east and west, by a series of swamps and water-courses, and abounds in lakes. These in the rainy season combine—especially in the south-west—to form extensive marsh lands, from which stand out the more elevated portions studded with villages, groves, and crops. Nowhere does any long continuous expanse of cultivation occur, marshes and saline plains (*usar*) interrupting the crop lands. In the northern portion of the District the old and new alluvial soils

divide the area between them nearly equally; but the water-courses here keep more closely to their channels, the swamps are less frequent, the expanses of cultivation more continuous, and hamlets with their attendant groves more thickly scattered. *Usar* or *reh* patches, lands efflorescing with salts, are very prevalent throughout the District; and though reclaimable, the process is costly and laborious. These, with the swamps, the occasional sand-beds, and the ravines, which, being overgrown with *dhák* and *bábul* jungle, defy cultivation, bring up the total barren area of the District to 371,563 acres, or more than a quarter of the whole. The principal river is the Gogra (Ghágra) or Great Sarju, known also as the Debha or Dehwa. Its valley varies in width from half a mile to ten miles, and within this the river is constantly shifting its channel. When in flood, it rolls along in an enormous volume of water, cutting its way deeply through the soft soil, and depositing along its course a sediment of sterile sand. The Tons river enters the District near Máhúl, and after a very tortuous course of some 30 miles, during which it receives several affluents, makes its way south-east till it reaches Azamgarh; here it turns northward again, making a loop, in which the town stands, and then returns to its south-easterly course, which it maintains till it leaves the District near Mhow (Mau). The other rivers of the District are the Chhotá Sarju, Pharei, Basnei, Mangai, Gangi, Basu; and the Kunwar, Ungri, Majhui, Silhani, Kayar, and Saksui, the affluents of the Tons. There are about 20 large lakes (*táls*) or swamps (*jhíls*) in the District, the principal being the Gumhirban, Kotail, Jambáwan, Gumadih, Koila, Salona, Pakri-Pewa, Narja, and Ratoe. They abound in fish—the *rohu*, *bachua*, and others. Among the mammalia are the *nilgai*, wolf, boar, wild-cat, jackal, fox, and the common rodents. The complete absence of the antelope tribes is, however, noteworthy. Innumerable wild-fowl of several species frequent or breed in the marsh lands, among them being the bean goose and the whistling teal. The trees are the mango, *ním*, *pípal*, tamarind, *sirsa*, *gular*, *shisham*, etc. The only mineral of importance is *kankar*, a nodular limestone largely used for road-making.

History.—Tradition points to the Rájbhars, Siúrs, Sengárias, and Charus as the aboriginal inhabitants of the District. The Rájbhars, or Bhars, in particular, are said to have had at one time possession of the greater part of the District, and to them are attributed the numerous forts of great size found in the Budaun and Sikandarpur *parganás.* Three waves of invasion swept over the District. First came the Rájputs, who wrested the soil from the Bhars. The Bhuinhárs, a people of doubtful origin, followed. They claim to be pure Bráhmans, but their neighbours assign to them either a Kshattriya or a mixed Bráhman and Kshattriya descent. One thing is certain, the Bhuinhárs

supplanted the Rájputs over the greater part of the District, as the numerous colonies still flourishing on their original sites attest. When the tide of Muhammadan conquest flowed eastwards, Azamgarh passed with the neighbouring country under the Delhi rule. At the end of the 14th century, Jaunpur established its independence, and the Sharki kings of that city usurped authority over Azamgarh. On the fall of their dynasty, the District was reannexed to the Delhi dominions, and the fort of Sikandarpur was built by, and named after, Sikandar Lódi. For many years, the District remained peaceably under the Emperors of Delhi; but early in the 17th century the Gautam family of Rájputs rose to influence, and before the close of the century they had by force of arms possessed themselves of the entire District, Máhúl and Sikandarpur excepted. The fortunes of this house were founded about 1600 by Chandra Sen, who became a Muhammadan, and in the service of Akbar grew rich enough to purchase the estate of Daulatabad in the Azamgarh District. His descendants systematically plundered their neighbours, wresting their estates from them one by one, until, at the beginning of the 18th century, all the country lying between the Gumti river and the present Ghazipur District was held by the family. The Khán-i-Khánáni of Jaunpur, a great feudatory of the Lucknow Viceroyalty, still, however, claimed authority over the District, and received from it a yearly revenue of £6000. But early in the 18th century, Mahábat Khán, the Azamgarh chief, refused payment, fortified his capital, and, marching out to meet the Jaunpur forces sent to enforce his submission, completely defeated them at Tilásra. Jaunpur, now invaded in its turn, appealed to Lucknow for assistance, and Saádat Khán, the Viceroy of Oudh, led a large army against Mahábat Khán. He fled to Gorakhpur, but was captured, and with him fell the political power of his house. Three members of the family nominally succeeded to his position, but under them all the estates in Jaunpur and Ghazipur were gradually lost, until at last they became freebooters in the District they had once ruled. In 1758, Azamgarh was formally constituted a *chaklah* of Oudh, and assimilated in internal administration with the rest of that territory; and except for the disturbances created by the outlaw Nádir Khán, an adopted member of the family of Chandrá Sen, it remained peaceably under the Wazírs of Lucknow until 1801. In that year, the District, yielding a revenue of £69,562, was ceded to the Company, together with other territory, in commutation of the military subsidy and other charges till then borne by the Lucknow treasury. Nádir Khán unsuccessfully sued the Company for the lands formerly held by his family; but the family title of Rájá, with a pension, was conferred on his sons, and both are still enjoyed by the representative of the house. From 1801 to 1857, the District has no history apart

from the North-Western Provinces. In the latter year it was a centre of mutiny. On the 3d of June 1857, the 17th Regiment of Native Infantry mutinied at Azamgarh, murdered some of their officers, and carried off the Government treasure to Fyzabad. The Europeans fled to Ghazipur, but on June 16th, Messrs. Venables and Dunne returned to Azamgarh, and, troops being sent from Ghazipur, the town was re-occupied. On the 18th July, the civil officers returned to the station; and Mr. Venables attacked the rebels, but was forced back on the city, and on the 28th, after the mutiny at Dinapur, all the Europeans returned to Ghazipur. The Palwárs held Azamgarh city from the 9th to the 25th August; but they were expelled by the loyal Gúrkhas on the 26th, and on the 3d September the civil officers returned again. On the 20th, Beni Mádhu and the Palwárs were defeated, and our authority to a great extent re-established. The rebels were driven out of Atraulia in November, and in January 1858 the Gúrkhas under Jang Bahádur marched from Gorakhpur towards Fyzabad, driving the rebels back into Azamgarh. Kúar Sinh entered the District in his flight from Lucknow in the middle of February, and was attacked by our troops at Atraulia; but the latter were defeated and fell back on Azamgarh, which was besieged by Kúar Sinh till the middle of April, when he was defeated by a force under Sir E. Lugard, and the siege raised. Kúar Sinh fled the District, and lost his life in crossing the Ganges; but bands of rebels roamed about, attacking the *tahsílís* and *thánás* till October, when a force under Colonel Kelly was sent to clear the District.

Archæology.—There are 18 forts in *pargan*á Budaun, and 17 in *parganá* Sikandarpur, attributed to the Bhars, the ancient rulers and inhabitants of the District. Some of them are of vast size, but the builders' names as well as the dates of their erection are unknown. The largest is that at Ghosi, said to have been built by Rájá Ghos with the help of demons. To the same agency are attributed a large excavation from the Kúar to the Nangái rivers, and a tunnel from the Bindraban fort running for a mile into the Narja Sal. In Mahá-rájganj, in *parganá* Gopálpur, there is an old shrine of Bhairo, which is said to have formed the eastern gate of Ajodhyá, in the traditional period when that city had four gates, each 42 *kos* distant from it.

Population.—A Census has twice been taken of the District—in 1865 and 1872. The Census of 1865 showed a total population of 1,385,872, inhabiting 297,068 houses, grouped into 4326 villages and towns, and cultivating 811,901 acres. There were therefore 544 persons per square mile, and 4·66 per house, with about three-fifths of an acre of cultivated ground per head. Four towns had a population exceeding 5000—viz. Azamgarh, Mau, Kopaganj, and Mubárakpur. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,531,482, inhabiting 314,327 houses,

grouped into 5071 villages and towns, and cultivating 875,520 acres. There were therefore 597 persons and 122 houses per square mile, with 4·8 inmates per house. The actual cultivation is returned at 2 roods 13 poles per head of the agricultural, and less than half an acre per head of the total, population. Of the villages and towns, 2730 had a population of less than 200; 1543 between 200 and 500; 581 between 500 and 1000; 176 between 1000 and 2000; 35 between 2000 and 5000; 4 between 5000 and 10,000; and 2 between 10,000 and 20,000. Of the inhabitants, classified according to religion, 1,333,805 were Hindus, 197,581 Muhammadans, and 24 Christians. As regards sex, 826,145 were males; and as regards occupation, 1,159,147 were agriculturists and landowning cultivators. The two highest castes were Bráhmans, 109,827, and Kshattriyas or Thákurs, 153,814, representing together 20 per cent. of the total population. The *bania* caste aggregated 42,536. The governing body of landowners is generally composed of the highest castes and the Ahírs. The well-to-do peasants are generally Kúrmís, Káchis, and Lodhs; and on a par with them may be placed the artisans. Lowest in the scale are the Chamárs, Pásís, Doms, Arakhs, etc. The Bhuinhárs form a noteworthy element in the District population; they most abound in *parganás* Deogaon, Nizámabad, Máhul, Ságri, Ghosi, and Muhammadabad. Trades-unions are represented in the District by the caste *pancháyats*, or consultative assemblies. When an enhancement of rent is threatened, the cultivators sometimes league together in a general defence fund, subscribing at so much per plough towards the expenses of litigation. *Banias*, goldsmiths, cloth merchants, and other guilds have in the same way *pancháyats* which regulate their trade customs. The only towns of the District containing over 5000 inhabitants are—(1) Azamgarh, population 15,770, area 325 acres; (2) Mau, population 11,315, area 288 acres; (3) Kopaganj, population 6633, area 123 acres; (4) Mubarakpur, population 5795, area 100 acres; (5) Dubari, population 5014, area 138 acres; and (6) Pur, population 5213, area 114 acres. These six chief towns contain, therefore, a total of 49,740 inhabitants, or only one-thirtieth part of the District population. Owing to the immense majority being agricultural, and to the minute subdivision of land, the population is uniformly distributed. The mass of it consist of the very poorest cultivating class, living from hand to mouth on the day's earnings. From the comparative healthiness of the District, and its immunity from severe famines, it has become over-populated, and the standard of subsistence is very low. In the whole District there are only 496 houses built by skilled artisans; the remainder are constructed of layers of mud, added one on the other as each dries. The labourer receives 3¾d. per diem for this work, and the total cost of such a house is about £1. The cultivator's effects, which as a rule consist of a brass drinking vessel, a

bedstead, a blanket, a quilt, and a few earthen pots, may be roughly valued at 10s. or 12s. Among the Hindus of the District, the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the first class, having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the second class, having incomes between £25 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £25 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather higher, as their habits are more expensive. Out of the total population of a million and a half, 16,922 males and 8 females were officially returned as able to read and write in 1872.

Agriculture.—The soil is alluvial throughout, being partly *bángar* (the old) and partly *kachhár* (the new deposit), with the transition from the one to the other generally marked by some change of elevation in the surface. The *bángar* land, athough both *reh* and *kankar* occur more frequently in it than in the *kachhár*, is the more fertile of the two. The subsoil strata are sands and clays, the former sometimes coming to the surface in the patches called *bálui.* Water is met with at a few feet beneath these sandy strata, but owing to the looseness of the soil the wells have to be lined with masonry, to prevent them from falling in. The clays are of three kinds,—the clear grey or bluish grey, called *matiára*, containing but little organic matter; the black clay, called *karáil,* heavy, sticky, very tenacious of moisture, and the most fertile of all the soils of the District; the light clay, called *kabsa*, contains a saline matter, and forms in fact the transition soil between the raised sandy wastes, on which it always borders, and the heavier clays of the more depressed portions. The waste tracts of the District generally lie on the higher levels, and owe their sterility to the presence of *reh*, a saline efflorescence which crystallizes on the surface of the soil during the hot months. This *usar* or *reh* land can, however, with labour, be reclaimed; for if it be well trenched during the rains, and mixed with uninfected soil, the *reh* dies out in time, and even after the first year the reclaimed surface will yield a crop of rice. If, however, the surface drainage from the adjoining *reh*-infected parts be admitted to it, the improving patch rapidly lapses into its original sterility. Much of the present rice land was once, no doubt, *usar* land; and if the wholesome water were to be drained off them, would at once revert. In some places extensive beds of *kankar* (limestone in course of formation) underlie the surface in solid sheets of coherent rock. The thin layers of soil that cover such reefs alternate, according to the season, between parched, dusty plains, and swamps. Agriculture in this District is specially dependent upon a seasonable distribution of the rainfall. The total agricultural population in 1872 was 973,724, or 63 per cent. of the inhabitants of the District; but, calculated on the

male population above 15 years, it amounted to just 80 per cent., the Muhammadan agriculturists being only 5 per cent. of the whole. The total area cultivated was 1368 square miles, or 53 per cent. of the total acreage of the District. The land tenures are those of the North-Western Provinces generally: (1) *Zamíndárí*, villages held in joint possession with no actual division of the estate; (2) *pattídárí*, where the land has been divided, and is held by several owners separately, but under a joint responsibility for the land revenue; (3) 'imperfect *pattídárí*,' where the two sets of circumstances meet in the same estate; (4) *bháyáchára*, where, though the tenure is *pattídárí*, the rights and interests of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates, the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are, jointly and severally, responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and the entire estate is liable for the whole of the revenue.

The cultivated land may be divided into three classes,—(1) The *sír* land, or home-farm, kept by the owner for his own cultivation; (2) the land held by tenants-at-will on terminable leases; (3) the land held by tenants with rights of occupancy. The last are generally old proprietors or relatives or dependants of old proprietors, and their privileges can be acquired by inheritance only. The *parganás* of Sikandarpur and Budaun are permanently settled; the rest of the District was 'settled' or leased in 1877 for 30 years. The bankers and large traders are chiefly *banias* and Kshattriya *mahájans*, who send produce to Patná, Mirzapur, Calcutta, etc., and have agents at each mart. The rates of interest charged are as follows:—In small transactions, on the security of personal effects, from 12 to 15 per cent.; and on personal security only, from 18 to 37½ per cent. In large transactions, on the security of valuables, 6 to 12 per cent., and on land, 9 to 18 per cent. The rates of wages are as follows:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2d. to 3½d. a day; agricultural labourers, 2d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters, from 6d. to 2s. a day. The average current prices of food during 1876 were—wheat, 22 lbs. for a shilling; rice, 11; *joár*, 32; and *dál*, 24 lbs.

Natural Calamities.—During the present century, no drought so severe as to cause deaths by starvation, or to force the people to leave their homes, has been known in the District. In 1782-83 there was so serious a scarcity that deaths from starvation occurred in the town of Mau, and a mosque and some wells built as relief works in the town of Kopaganj form memorials of the year. Wheat, nevertheless, sold throughout this 'famine' at 14 lbs. for the shilling. In 1818 an extraordinary hailstorm ruined the crops, and in 1819 frost destroyed the spring crops. In 1837-38 there was a scarcity in parts, and in 1869

wheat was selling at 11 lbs. for the shilling. In 1873 the winter rice crop was lost from want of rain. Partial droughts also occurred in 1859-60, 1864-65-66, and floods in 1871-72.

Commerce and Trade.—Trade in Azamgarh has many lines of ingress and egress, both by road and river. The chief is the Gogra river, a cheap highway for both import and export, bringing in grain from the north and west, and carrying out sugar to Bengal and the east. The principal roads in the District radiate from the town of Azamgarh to Ghazipur, Jaunpur, Gorakhpur, Benares, and Fyzabad, the two first being main feeders of the Oudh and the East Indian Railways respectively. They are bridged and metalled throughout. A network of unmetalled roads connects these main communications at numerous points, and brings to them the produce of the remoter hamlets, carried in packloads on the backs of bullocks, buffaloes, and ponies. Sugar, molasses, indigo, opium, coarse cloths, and firewood constitute the bulk of the exports; the District importing in exchange, grain, English-made cloth and threads, raw cotton, silk, tobacco, salt, hardware, drugs, leather goods, and millstones and stone sugar-presses from Chanár. Formerly, Azamgarh enjoyed a large trade in refined sugar with Europe *viâ* Calcutta, but this has died out. The trade with other parts of India now amounts to about 45,000 tons a year. About 400 indigo factories (29 being European) exist in name, but the industry is not prosperous, and many of the concerns have altogether ceased work. All the native indigo factories have been started since 1857. Forty fairs are annually held in the District, the chief being those of Darbásá, Bhairoká-asthán, Deolas, and Dohrighát. The last is a bathing festival as well as a trading fair. There are no local manufactures of importance. In *parganá* Máhúl, particularly *tappá* Didárganj, considerable deposits of chloride of sodium occur, but the manufacture of salt and saltpetre is prohibited.

Administration.—For the purpose of collecting the land revenue the District is divided into 6 *tahsílís*, viz. Deogaon, Azamgarh, Máhúl, Ságri, Muhammadabad, and Sikandarpur. The land revenue amounted in 1876 to £190,116, the *tahsílí* of Azamgarh contributing £40,684 of the whole. The total assessed area was 1,002,726 acres, and the cultivated area, 767,063 acres. This assessment is at the rate of about 3s. per acre of assessed, and 4s. per acre of cultivated land. The incidence of the land tax is 4s. per agriculturist a year, and rather over 2s. per head of total population. The last Settlement (for 30 years) was commenced in 1868, and concluded in 1877. It resulted in an increase of £41,191, the operations of the Settlement costing £117,817, or nearly the first three years' increase.

The total revenue of the District, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, for 1875 was £238,976, or, calculating the population at

1,531,410, about 3s. 0½d. per head. Out of the whole, £68,435, or 29 per cent., was expended in the District as the local cost of its administration. The District and local funds in that year amounted to £34,193, and the expenditure to £24,159. The only municipality in the District is that of AZAMGARH, with an income, in 1875, of £1532.

The District forms part of the Benares Division, and is controlled in revenue and police matters by the Commissioner of Benares; in judicial matters it forms a civil and sessions judgeship by itself. The District staff generally consists of a magistrate and collector, a joint-magistrate, an assistant-magistrate, an uncovenanted deputy-magistrate, and collector; together with a District superintendent of police, 6 *tahsíldárs* or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors of revenue subdivisions, a sub-deputy opium agent, and 3 honorary special magistrates with local powers. The civil courts are under the control of a Civil and Sessions judge, who also supervises the criminal courts. Subordinate to him are one sub-judge and three *munsifs*, stationed respectively at Azamgarh, Muhammadabad, and Nagra. In 1875, the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts was £6175, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £6701. The total number of cases decided during the year was 7501. The average value of the suits in the civil courts was £21, 8s.

The police force of the District numbers 649, being at the rate of 3·92 per square mile, and 1 constable to every 2359 of the population. It is maintained at a cost of £7838 per annum, the provincial revenues paying £7007 of the whole. The District jail at Azamgarh contained during 1875 a daily average of 392 prisoners (351 being males), costing £3, 5s. per head, and returning in labour 12s. The annual mortality averaged 1·6 per cent. The postal administration centres at Azamgarh, the number of local post offices in the District being 18. There are no telegraph offices. Education was carried on by 438 Government schools, giving 1 school to every 5·8 square miles, with a total average attendance of 11,702 scholars, or ·76 per cent. of the entire population.

Medical Aspects.—The District is on the whole a healthy one; but fever is prevalent during the rains and immediately after them. These begin in normal years in the third week of June and end in September, the first burst coming sometimes from the north-east, sometimes from the north-west. During the rains, the temperature varies from 75° to 95° in the shade. The cool season begins about the middle of October and continues till March, the wind during these months being generally from the west, but sometimes from the east, and then often accompanied with rain. There are occasionally frosts, which, as in 1819, cause most serious damage to the crops; and also, as in 1818, hailstorms. The hot season lasts through April, May, and most of

June; the thermometer ranges to 110° in the shade. Westerly winds blow steadily till the middle of May, when easterly winds set in, and the climate becomes very relaxing. The average rainfall for the 17 years from 1859 to 1875 is returned at 37·3 inches, the maximum being 57·1 in 1871, and the minimum 20·8 in 1859. The total number of deaths 'reported' in 1875 was 27,281, or 17·81 per 1000; the mean ratio of 'reported' deaths per thousand for the previous six years being 15·10. There are 2 dispensaries; at Azamgarh and Nagra. During 1875 the aggregate number of out-door patients was 13,519, of in-door, 345. The number of persons vaccinated in 1876 was 11,608.

Azamgarh. — *Tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 442 square miles, of which 248 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 315,906; land revenue, £40,701; total revenue, £44,771; rental paid by cultivators, £85,948; incidence of revenue per acre, 2s. 10½d.

Azamgarh.—Municipal town and headquarters of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 3′ 2″ N., long. 83° 13′ 20″ E.; area, 325 acres; pop. (1872), 15,770, comprising 9673 Hindus, 6077 Muhammadans, and 20 'others.' Situated on the river Tons, 81 miles north of Benares, 109 miles north-east of Allahabad, and 171 miles south-east of Lucknow. Founded about the year 1665 by Azam Khán, a powerful landholder of the neighbourhood. During the Mutiny of 1857, the 17th Native Infantry murdered their officers and carried off the treasure to Fyzabad. The Europeans at Azamgarh were twice compelled to take refuge at Ghazipur, and Kúar Sinh, on his retreat from Lucknow in February 1858, laid siege to Azamgarh, but fled on the arrival of Sir E. Lugard in April. Local centre for trade, *en route* for the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at Jaunpur. Government offices, jail, post office, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1532; from taxes, £1224, or 1s. 6⅝d. per head of population (15,980) within municipal limits.

Azímabad.—Quarter of Patna City.—*See* PATNA.

Azímganj.—Village on the Bhágirathí river in Murshidabad District, Bengal, once regarded as a suburb of Murshidabad city. Terminus of the Nalháti State Railway, and a great centre of passenger traffic. Lat. 24° 14′ 20″ N., long. 88° 18′ 1″ E. Distance from NALHATI, 27 miles. The merchants of JIAGANJ and BHAGWANGOLA reside here; and the village also contains a thriving colony of Oswál and Márwárí (up-country) traders, who are all Jains. Their handsome temples are conspicuous from the river.

Azímganj.—Village of minor importance, also in Murshidabad District, Bengal. It is situated in Jalangí *thána* (police circle), in the headquarters Subdivision. Lat. 24° 7′ 20″ N., long. 88° 35′ 46″ E.

Azmeriganj, or **Ajmeriganj**.—Village in the south-west of Sylhet District, Assam Province, on the Surmá river, with considerable river-borne exports of rice, dried fish, bamboos, and mats. Lat. 24° 33′ 20″ N., long. 91° 16′ 31″ E. In 1876-77 the registered exports into Bengal included 4000 *maunds* of rice and 19,800 of paddy.

B.

Baba Budan, or **Chandra Drona**.—Range of mountains in Kadur District, Mysore State; between 13° 23′ and 13° 35′ N. lat., and 75° 37′ and 75° 52′ E. long. They form a horse-shoe, opening towards the north-west, about 6000 feet above sea level, the highest peak, Mulaina-giri, being 6317 feet. The range runs out as an isolated spur of the Western Gháts. The summits consist of grassy slopes, broken into ravines; and the sides are densely clothed with forests, including teak and sandal-wood. Here was the scene of the first cultivation of coffee in India, and plantations are now scattered over their valleys. The coffee berry is said to have been introduced from Mecca about two centuries ago by a Muhammadan saint, who has given his name to the mountains. His body lies buried in a cave on the southern slopes, which is now under the custody of a Musalmán *kalandar;* but the spot is equally venerated by Hindus, who regard it as the throne of Dattátreya. A hot weather retreat for the European officials of the neighbouring Districts has been established at Kalhatti, in the north-east of the range, where there is also an experimental cinchona plantation. The rainfall is about 70 inches in the year. At the eastern base of the hills are two artificial lakes, which have been formed in early days by throwing embankments across narrow gorges. Their present utility for irrigation is small. Iron ore is largely obtained and smelted among the hills bordering the eastern slope of the range. The place is famous for a colossal Jain figure.

Baberu.—*Tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, stretching upward from the Jumna (Jamuná), and consisting of a marshy lowland, liable to floods in the rainy season. Area, 364 square miles, of which 208 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 83,683. Land revenue, £19,848; total revenue, £20,280; rental paid by cultivators, £37,837; incidence of revenue, 1s. 8½d. per acre.

Bábhar (*Bhábhar*).—Petty State under the Pálanpur Agency, Bombay; bounded on the N. by Deodar, S. by Terwára, and W. by Suigám. Area, about 80 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 5659, principally Kolís; revenue, £400. The State is held by Kolí Thákurda Sagramjí and other shareholders—Hindus. In 1826, in consideration of the poverty of the petty chiefs in Pálanpur, the tribute was remitted

altogether. The country is flat, with a great deal of jungle. The soil is sandy, producing only one crop of the common grains yearly.

Bábhar.—Chief town of the State of the same name, in Guzerat, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency; 48 miles west of Pálanpur. Lat. 24° 7′ N., long. 71° 43′ E.

Babhnipáir.—*Parganá*, in Utraula *tahsíl*, Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mánikpur and Búrhapára *parganás;* on the south and east by Basti District, in the North-West Provinces; and on the west by Nawabganj *parganá*. The Rájá of Babhnipáir, descended from the old Kalháns Rájás of Khurásá, is the head of the family, whose sway at one time extended from Gonda far into Gorakhpur District. On the downfall of the Khurásá dynasty, in accordance with a curse of extinction from a Bráhman whose daughter had been carried away by the Rájá, an exception was made in favour of the offspring of the youngest Rání. A few months after her husband's death she bore a posthumous son, who possessed himself of a small chieftainship embracing Babhnipáir, Búrhapára, Rasulpur, Ghaus, etc. The Pathán chief of Utraula succeeded in wresting away a great portion of the estate, and Babhnipáir *parganá* is all that now remains to his descendants. The present chief (1877) is a minor, and the estate is under the guardianship of the Court of Wards. With the exception of a narrow belt of jungle along the bank of the Bisúhi river in the north-east, the *parganá* is well populated, and under minute and careful tillage. The whole is a perfectly level, slightly raised plain, with no distinctive natural features beyond a number of small lakes, which collect the water during the rains. The soil is a good *domat*, or mixture of clay and sand. Irrigation is general. Area, 67 square miles, or 42,985 acres, of which 26,941, or 62·5 per cent., are under cultivation. Autumn rice occupies about one-half of the cultivated area, the other crops being winter rice, wheat, gram, *alsi*, etc. The Government land revenue is £4282, to be ultimately increased to £4439 during the current thirty years' settlement. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 29,785; Muhammadans, 1244; total, 31,029, viz. 16,255 males and 14,774 females: number of villages, 141; average density of population, 463 per square mile. The most numerous castes are the Bráhmans, 4169; Chámárs, 4510; Ahírs, 3740; and Kúrmís, 2994. No manufactures or commerce; and no roads, except rough cart-tracks which connect the villages with each other, and enable the people to get their surplus rice to the marts of Nawabganj or Sháhganj. The only place of religious importance is the shrine at CHHIPIA.

Bablá, or **Dwarká.**—River of Lower Bengal; rises in the Santál Parganás, and after watering the northern portion of Bírbhúm District, passes through the south-west corner of Murshidabad, flowing first in an easterly and then in a south-easterly direction. Again entering

Bírbhúm, it finally falls into the Bhágirathí. During the latter part of its course it is navigable, and, being connected by numerous breakwaters and cross-channels with the Bhágirathí, it affords a convenient means of communication in the part of Murshidabad District which it waters. With its confluents, it forms the chief drainage basin of the southern portion of that District.

Bábnábárí.—Trading village on the Dámodar river, Bardwán District, Bengal. Chief articles of traffic—coal, rice, and timber.

Bábra Chamárdi.—Petty State in North Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of 6 villages, with 7 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £4000. The tribute due by this *táluk* is paid by Amreli, in the Gáekwár's territory. Chief village, Bábra; lat. 21° 51′ N., long. 71° 21′ E.

Babriáwár.—Tract of country in Káthiáwár, Bombay, lying between lat. 20° 47′ and 21° 10′ N., and long. 71° 3′ and 71° 33′ E.; so called from a tribe of Bábriás who formerly possessed the adjacent Districts of Káthiáwár and Gohelwár, but are now confined principally to this tract. Estimated pop. (Thornton), 18,468; chief town, Jafarabad.

Babulgaon.—Village in Wún District, Berár. Lat. 20° 33′ 30″ N., long. 78° 12′ 30″ E.; 226 houses. Large weekly cattle market.

Bachhraon.—Rural town in Moradabad District, North-Western Provinces; 33 miles west of Moradabad, and 7 miles east of the Ganges. Lat. 28° 55′ 45″ N., long. 78° 16′ 55″ E.; pop. (1872), 6768, comprising 2127 Hindus and 4641 Musalmáns; area, 83 acres; income, £120; incidence of taxation per head, 4¼d.

Bachhráwán.—*Parganá* in Digbijaiganj *tahsíl*, Rae Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kumhráwán, on the east by Hardoi, on the south by Bareli, and on the west by Nigohán and Mauránwán *parganás*. The *parganá* was held by the Bhars up till early in the fifteenth century, notwithstanding that they were subdued successively by a general of Sayyid Sálár Masáud and by the Bais Rájás. In that year, however, their power was completely broken by Sultán Ibráhim of Jaunpur. The *zamíndárí* of the *parganá* was granted to one of Ibráhim's officers, Kází Sultán, but his descendants have been gradually deprived of the greater portion of their estates by the Kúrmís and Bais; only 6 villages now remain to them, and these are mortgaged. The *parganá* is very fertile, owing to irrigation from numerous tanks, and it abounds in groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. Soil chiefly loam and clay. Area, 94⅓ square miles, or 60,395 acres; cultivated area, 49 square miles. Government land revenue, £14,019, at the rate of 4s. 7½d. per acre. The 58 villages of which the *parganá* is composed are held under the following tenures:—*Tálukdárí*, 44½; grant, 1; *zamíndárí*, 5½; *pattídárí*, 7. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 48,090; Muhammadans, 2777; total, 50,867—viz. 25,507 males and 25,360 females:

number of villages, 58; average density of population, 541 per square mile. Salt was formerly manufactured, but this industry is not now carried on, although saltpetre, to the extent of about 38 tons per annum, is still made in 11 villages. Six villages have bi-weekly markets. Large cattle market at Girdháraganj, attended by dealers from trans-Gogra Districts and from Tirhut.

Bachhráwán.—Town in Rae Bareli District, Oudh, on the road from Rae Bareli to Lucknow. Pop. (1869), 4934. Five Sivaite temples to Mahádeo. Police station, Government school, and tri-weekly market.

Bachireddipallem.—Town in Nellore District, Madras; situated 8 miles west of Nellore. Pop. 3467. In the neighbourhood are gneiss quarries, producing a fine building stone, and giving the town its chief industry—pillar and ornament cutting for pagodas, etc. Brass and copper manufactures and weaving provide occupation for a large proportion of the residents; and at the annual fair, held here in April, in honour of Kodanda Rámáswámí, when some 8000 persons assemble, considerable trade is carried on. An official tree nursery has been established here. The 'Bachireddipallem Family' dates from 1700, and owes its fortunes and present position to the intelligent public spirit of its members, and their zealous execution of official duties, recognised from time to time by grants of land and honorary privileges. The important irrigation channel from the Pennér to the Southern Delta, and the temple at Bachireddipallem, are among the public works constructed at their own expense by members of the family.

Badagári (*Vadaka-Rara*, 'The North Bank').—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 36′ N., long. 75° 37′ 15″ E.; houses, 1037; pop. (1871), 7718, almost exclusively Moplas. Situated on the sea-coast at the northern extremity of the Calicut backwater, and on the Trunk Road from Calicut to Cannanore; 30 miles from the former town, and 12 from Tellicherry. The fort belonged originally to the Cherakal Rájás, from whom it was wrested by the Kádatanád family in 1564. It then passed into the possession of Tippú Sultán, who made it the chief export customs station in his dominions. In 1790, it was taken from Tippú, and, having been restored to the Kádatanád Rájá, has now been converted into a rest-house for pilgrims. Badagári is a busy town, the headquarters of the *táluk* officials, with sub-magistrates' and judges' courts, customs-house, jail, post office, and travellers' bungalow.

Badakshán.—Mountainous tract of country in Central Asia, tributary to the Amír of Afghánistán, lying beyond British India, and therefore outside the scope of this work; bounded on the north by Kulab and Darwaz, on the east by the Pamír tableland, on the south by the Hindu Kush, and on the west by Kunduz. Lat. (including Wakhan), 35° 50′ to 38° N., long. 69° 30′ to 74° 20′ E. Extent from east

to west about 200 miles, and from north to south about 150 miles. Contains 16 Districts, of which the chief is Faizabad. Its mines, which yield rubies, lapis-lazuli, lead, sulphur, and copper, were mentioned by the Arabian geographers of the 10th century. Chief agricultural products—wheat, rice, cotton, poppy, oil-seeds, mulberries (the chief article of food in these parts), and many other fruits.

Bádámi. — Subdivision and town, Kaládgi District, Bombay. Interesting for a Jain excavation and cave temple ascribed to 650 A.D., together with three caves of Bráhmanical construction, one of which has an inscription bearing the date 579 A.D. The Jain cave is only 31 feet across by about 19 feet deep. These caves mark the period when Hinduism was re-asserting itself previous to its final triumph over Buddhism in the next century or two. The Narasinha *avatar*, Vishnu seated on the five-headed serpent Ananka, and a variety of sculptures, still survive. In one cave temple the front pillars have three brackets of a wooden-like design, ornamented by male or female figures and dwarfs, of considerable beauty of execution. Some of the pillars are more architectural in their forms, and in the best style of Hindu art.

Badansa.—*Tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; composed of irregular uplands, the last outliers of the Vindhyan range, interspersed with detached granite rocks, and containing the famous hill fortress of Kálinjar. Towards the south a range of craggy hills pushes into the *tahsíl*, and the river Bágain intersects it from end to end. Area, 348 square miles, of which 179 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 85,754. Land revenue, £14,486; total revenue, £14,800; rental paid by cultivators, £23,507; incidence of revenue per acre, 1s. 3⅝d.

Bádarganj.—Trading village and produce depôt, in Rangpur District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 40′ N., long. 89° 6′ E. Chief trade—rice, paddy, and mustard-seed.

Badin, or **Badino.**—*Táluk* in Hyderabad District, Sind, lying between 24° 13′ and 24° 58′ 15″ N. lat., and between 68° 43′ and 69° 16′ E. long.; area, 795 square miles; pop. (1872), 51,593; revenue (1873-74), £10,517, being £9621 imperial and £896 local.

Badin, or **Badino.**—Municipality in *táluk* of same name, Hyderabad District, Sind. Lat. 24° 38′ 45″ N., long. 68° 53′ E.; pop. 978 (Hindus, chiefly shopkeepers, 414; Muhammadans, agriculturists and weavers, 564). Founded about 1750. The old town (on the opposite bank of the canal) was totally destroyed by Madat Khán, in his raid into Sind. Large local trade in food-grains and articles of household consumption, with an annual fair in June lasting a fortnight. Municipal revenue in 1873-74, £134; disbursements, £153; taxation per head, 2s. 9d. Headquarters of a *múkhtiázkar;* post office.

Badipude.—A former *táluk* of Nellore District, Madras, now included in the Kandukúr *táluk*. Formerly also a 'range' of the District

Public Works Department, with an annual revenue of £42,068, but now included in the 4th or 'Northern Range.'

Badnera.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar. Lat. 20° 51′ 45″ N., long. 77° 46′ 15″ E.; pop. (1867), 6876. A State railway connects it with Amráoti, 6 miles off. It is also called Badnera Bíbí, from having formed part of the dowry of an Ahmednagar princess. The old town and earthen fort on the north of the railway were the residence of the Mughal officials. The exactions of successive rulers depopulated Badnera, and in 1822 it was plundered by Rájá Rám Subah, who partly demolished the fort and town walls. The present Badnera is important for its cotton warehouses, gins, and presses worked by steam-power, and as the despatching station of the Amráoti cotton to Bombay. Rich *pán* gardens and plantain grounds lie round the old town.

Badnúr.—Town and civil station in Betúl District (Central Provinces), of which it is the headquarters. Lat. 21° 54′ 28″ N., long. 77° 56′ 40″ E.; pop. (1877) within municipal limits, 2858; municipal income, £98; from taxation, £87, or 7d. per head. There are two *bázárs*, well kept, with good roads through them, the larger of which, in 1870, had 521 houses with a population of 2015. The public buildings are the Commissioner's court-house, the District court-house, the jail, the *tahsíl* and police station-house, two Government schools for males and females respectively, the post office, dispensary, and Government central distillery, also a good *sarái* for native travellers, and a *dák* bungalow. Near Badnúr is Kherlá, the former residence of the Gond Rájás, with a ruined fort.

Bado Sarai.—*Parganá* in Fatehpur *tahsíl*, Bara Banki District, Oudh; lying west of the Gogra river, and east of Bhitauli and Daryabad *parganás*. It consists partly of the high lands west of the old bank of the Gogra river, and partly of the low *tarái* extending to the present channel. Area, 48 square miles, of which 24 are cultivated: pop. (1869), Hindus, 22,863; Muhammadans, 4550; total, 27,413, viz. 14,224 males and 13,189 females: number of villages, 56; average density of population, 571 per square mile.

Bado Sarai.—Town, Bara Banki District, Oudh, 25 miles north-east of Bara Banki town, on the road from Rámnagar to Daryabad. Said to have been founded about 500 years ago by a *fakír* named Bádu Sháh. A shrine over the tomb of a famous Muhammadan saint, Malámat Sháh, who died about 150 years ago, is reputed a place of great sanctity, and daily offerings are made. The population largely consists of petty Musalmán proprietors.

Badráchalam (*Bhadrachellum*).—*Táluk* in Gódávari District, Madras, lying between 17° 35′ 45″ and 17° 56′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 54′ 30″ and 81° 8′ E. long. Containing 132 villages, half of which belong to an old proprietary estate, with 22,837 inhabitants, almost all Kols.

Annual revenue, £764. This *táluk*, with that of REKAPALLI, was transferred from the Central Provinces in 1874, and, the Rampa country being added, the whole was formed into an Agency under the Gódávari Collector. Until 1860 this tract formed part of the Upper Gódávari District, ceded in that year by the Nizám.

Badráchalam.—Town in the Badráchalam *táluk*, Gódávari District, Madras. Lat. 17° 41′ N., long. 81° E.; houses, 350; pop. (1871), 2000. Situated on the Gódávari river, at the commencement of the 'first barrier' (which extends to Dumagudiem), about 90 miles north of Rajahmundry. As the headquarters of the *táluk* it possesses subordinate courts, jail, police establishment, treasury, post office, etc.; but the town is chiefly notable for the temple of Rámáchandrá, with its fine porch and 24 pagodas. The Nizám annually contributes £1300 towards its maintenance, and during April it is thronged with pilgrims. A considerable trade is carried on at this time. Twenty miles from Badráchalam is Parnesala, another shrine of great sanctity.

Badrihát, or **Ghiásabad.**—At present an unimportant police station on the right bank of the Bhágirathí, a few miles above Azímganj, in Murshidabad District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 17′ 30″ N., long. 88° 17′ E. Ruins extending several miles from the river show that an ancient city with a palace or fort once stood here. Stones and pillars engraved with Pálí characters, gold coins, and much broken pottery have been found; but there is no evidence to throw light upon the history of the place. The Pálí inscriptions seem to point to the Buddhist period. The old Hindu name of Badrihát was changed by the conquering Muhammadans to Ghiásabad, in honour of Ghiás-ud-dín, one of the Pathán kings of Gaur, who is said to be buried here.

Badrináth.—Peak of the main Himalayan range in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces, reaching to a height of 22,901 feet above the sea. From the glaciers on its sides, the Alaknanda river and many of its tributaries take their rise. On one of its shoulders, at an elevation of 10,400 feet, and 56 miles north-east of Srínagar, stands a shrine of Vishnu, which also bears the name of Badrináth (lat. 30° 44′ 15″ N., long. 79° 30′ 40″ E.). The existing temple, more noteworthy for its religious importance than for any architectural pretensions, is said to have been erected some 800 years ago by Sankara Swámí, who brought up the figure of the deity from the bottom of the river after diving ten times. It consists of a conical building, surmounted by a small copper-covered cupola, terminating in a golden ball and spire. Several previous temples, according to tradition, were swept away by avalanches, and the present erection has been severely shattered by an earthquake. Below the shrine a sacred tank stands on the hillside, supplied from a thermal spring by means of a spout in the shape of a dragon's head. Pilgrims of both sexes bathe in the holy pool. The god is daily provided with a

dinner, and his comfort is carefully ensured in many other ways. The vessels on which he is served are of gold and silver, and a large staff of servants attend to his various wants. The chief priest, known as the *Ráwal*, is always a Bráhman of the Nimbúri caste, from Kírat Malwár in the Deccan (Dakshin). The priests officiate at Badrináth from May to October, and then bury the treasure and retire to JOSHIMATH for the winter. Four other temples are dependent upon Badrináth. Besides the offerings of pilgrims, the revenue of a large number of villages in Kumaun and Garhwál is appropriated to the use of the temple; annual value, £394. Immense numbers of pilgrims annually pay a visit to Badrináth, and in some years as many as 50,000 persons have been known to attend the great festival.

Badrpur, or **Badarpur.**—Village in Sylhet District, Assam Province; situated at the bifurcation of the Barák into the Surmá and Kusiyára rivers, close to the boundary of Cachar District. Lat. 24° 52′ 45″ N., long. 92° 37′ 30″ E. In the neighbourhood, a bathing festival is held in March, annually attended by 3000 persons, among whom are many itinerant traders. Just within the Cachar frontier are the Keatinge saw-mills, recently established by an Englishman, and worked partly by water, partly by steam-power. They manufacture great numbers of tea-boxes.

Bádshahpur.—Torrent in Gurgaon District, Punjab; rises in the Gurgaon Hills, issues into the plain by a gorge near the village of Bádshahpur, and falls by an artificial channel into the Najafgarh *jhil.* Impassable after heavy rains.

Badváil (*Baddeloo-vailoo*, 'The Town of Cloths').—*Táluk* in Cuddapah District, Madras. Area, 755 square miles; pop. (1871), 93,051, or about 123 to the square mile. Chief towns, BADVAIL; Koduru Porumamille, with 4670 inhabitants; Koduru, 2033; Palagoorlapalli, 2402; Senkavaram, 3528; Kavalakatla, 3057; Munally, 2686; Cherlopalli, 2837; and Kataragandla, 3709. The *táluk* suffers with the rest of the District from a deficient water supply; but it possesses two of the finest tanks in Cuddapah, and 93 smaller reservoirs, besides 14 irrigation-channels and 1042 wells, irrigating altogether lands assessed at £7706. The chief product is indigo, of which about 1600 cwts. are annually exported. The imports consist of grain. The hills of the *táluk* are rich in minerals, silver, copper, iron, and lead, being worked on a small scale.

Badváil.—Town in Badváil *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 14° 45′ N., long. 79° 6′ E.; houses, 2718; pop. (1871), 8337. Situated in the Kambam valley, 198 miles from Madras and 32 from Cuddapah; a place of considerable antiquity. As the chief town of the *táluk*, it possesses subordinate magisterial courts, jail, etc. The tank immediately above the town is one of the largest in the District.

Baffa.—Municipality in Hazára District, Punjab. Lat. 34° 26′ 30″ N., long. 73° 15′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 4193. Lies on the right bank of the Sirhan, in the northern corner of Pakhli plain. Principal mart of northern Hazára and of the neighbouring independent Swát tracts. Imports indigo, cloth, copper vessels; exports grain. Income in 1876-77, £135; incidence of revenue, 7½d. per head of population (4494) within municipal limits.

Bágalkot.—Chief town of the Bágalkot Subdivision, in Kaládgi District, Bombay; situated on the river Ghatprabha, 15 miles east of Kaládgi. Lat. 16° 11′ 50″ N., long. 75° 44′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 14,002; municipal revenue (1875-76), £825; rate of taxation, 1s. 2d. per head. Bágalkot is a place of considerable trade, with manufactures of silk and cotton goods; sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Bagasra.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of 15 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £10,000. A tribute of £255 is paid to the Gáekwár, and £154 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Bagasra.—Town in the peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay; 152 miles south-west of Ahmedabad, and 160 west of Surat. Lat. 21° 29′ N., long. 71° E.; pop. (1872), 7319. Bagasra is situated in the vicinity of the Gir, or wild highlands which occupy the centre of the Káthiáwár peninsula.

Bagepalli (*Bagenhalli*).—Municipal village and headquarters of the Gumnayakanpalya *táluk* in Kolar District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 47′ 15″ N., long. 77° 50′ 31″ E.; pop. (1871), 1441; municipal revenue (1874-75), £23; rate of taxation, 4d. per head.

Bágerú.—River in Nellore District, Madras. Rising among the Gháts at Bogu Venkatapuram, it drains the country west and south of Durgam, and flowing through Alinakúr, it joins the Pennér at Sangam, where the two rivers have overspread a considerable tract with alluvial deposits. The Alinakúr *táluk* to some extent, and the Udayagiri *táluk* almost entirely, depend upon the Bágerú for irrigation.

Bágesar.—Town in Kumaun District, North-Western Provinces, at the confluence of the Sarju and Gomáti rivers, about 3000 feet above the sea; distant from Almora 17 miles north-east, from Calcutta 911 miles north-west. Lat. 29° 49′ 20″ N., long. 79° 47′ 35″ E. Carries on a brisk trade with Central Asia, and forms one of the main outlets for the Thibetan traffic. A great Bhutiá fair is held in January, at which the produce of the lower hills is exchanged for that of the alpine valleys. Population said to be derived from a Mughal colony planted by Timur in the Bágesar valley.

Bágh.—River in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Rising in the hills near Chichgarh, it flows in a northerly direction, forming the south-western border of Bálághát District. After receiving the Son (Soane)

and Deo, it falls into the Wainganga at Satona. Partly navigable during the rains since the removal of the rocky barrier near Rájágaon.

Bágh.—Small town, celebrated for Buddhist cave-temples in its immediate neighbourhood, in Ráth *parganá*, Gwalior, Central India; about 150 miles north-north-west of Ajanta, and 90 to 100 miles from either Ujjain or Indore. Lat. 22° 24′ N., long. 74° 52′ 30″ E. The cave-temples, known as Pánchpandhu by the natives, lie about 850 feet above the level of the sea, on a hilly tract below the Vindhyan range. These *viháras*, only a little less interesting than those of AJANTA, date from 500 to 700 A.D. They are remarkable for their rock-hewn pillars, and were at one time adorned with frescoes, in brilliant colours and of great beauty. First described, about 1820, by Lieutenant Dangerfield in *Transactions of the Bombay Literary Society*, vol. ii.; and subsequently, in 1854, by Dr. E. Impey (see *Journal Bombay Branch of Royal Asiatic Society*, vol. v. July 1856).

Bághal.—One of the Punjab Hill States. Lat. (centre) 31° 13′ N., long. 77° 1′ E.; area, 124 square miles; pop. (1875), 22,000; revenue, £6000. The Rájá, Kishen Sinh, is a Puar Rájput, born about 1817. He holds the territory under a *sanad* dated 1815, and pays a tribute of £360 in commutation of *begars* or forced labourers. He has a military force of 20 cavalry, 200 infantry, and 1 field gun, with which he is bound to join the British forces in case of war. He is also bound to keep the roads in his territories in order. Sentences of death passed by the Rájá require the confirmation of the Superintendent of the Hill States and of the Commissioner of the Division; all other punishments are awarded by the Rájá on his own authority.

Bághampur.—Village in Lahore District, Punjab; 5 miles east of Lahore. Pop. (1868), 3214. Contains the celebrated Shalimár Gardens, laid out by Alí Mardán Khán, the famous engineer of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, in imitation of those which Jahángír had constructed near the sources of the Jhelum (Jhilam), in Kashmir. During the later period of the empire they fell into ruin, but were restored by Ranjít Sinh, stucco being substituted for the marble of which the central pavilion was originally constructed.

Baghár (*Baghiár*).—A western offshoot of the Indus, diverging from it about lat. 24° 40′ N., long. 68° E., to the south of Tatta, in Kurrachee (Karáchi) District, Sind. At the beginning of the 18th century, it was a considerable stream, navigable to Lahoribandar, within 20 miles of the sea, into which it fell by four branches—the Piti, Pitiáni, Juná, and Rechhal—all navigable. Owing to a sandbank having been thrown up where it diverges from the Indus, the Baghár in 1840 became almost dry. It is at the present day the chief water-course connecting the Indus with the sea, through the Jerruck (Jhirak) Deputy-Collectorate.

Baghát.—One of the Punjab Hill States. Lat. (centre) 30° 55′ N.,

long. 77° 7′ E.; area, 124 square miles; estimated pop. 10,000; revenue, £800. The Ráná, Dhulíp Sinh, is a Rájput, and was born about 1859. His military and police force amount to 35 men. The tribute payable is £100, but a deduction of £50 is made as compensation for ground taken up for a rifle-range at Solan. The State is held on the same conditions as BAGHAL.

Bághdángá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal, a little to the west of Jessor town; noted for its excellent pottery. Lat. 23° 13′ N., long. 89° 12′ E.

Baghelkhand.—Tract of country in Central India, occupied by a collection of Native States (known as the Bághelkhand Agency), under the political superintendence of the Governor-General's Agent for Central India. Lies between 22° 40′ and 25° 10′ N. lat., and between 80° 25′ and 82° 45′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Allahabad and Mirzapur Districts of the North-Western Provinces, on the east by the tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur, on the south by Biláspur and Mandla Districts of the Central Provinces, and on the west by Jubbulpore (Jabalpur) District and the States of Bundelkhand. Until 1871, Baghelkhand was under the Bundelkhand Agency, and it is geographically as well as historically connected with that province, under which head a general description of the country will be found. Area about 14,250 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 2,260,000. The States comprising the Agency are REWAH, NAGODE, MAIHAR, SOHAWAL, and KOTHI (all of which see separately).

Bágherhát.—Subdivision of Jessor District, Bengal, lying between 21° 44′ and 22° 59′ 15″ N. lat., and between 89° 34′ and 90° 0′ 15″ E. long.; area, 680 square miles; pop. (1872), 299,513, comprising 154,090 Hindus, 144,821 Muhammadans, 462 Christians, and 140 'others.' Average density of the population, 440 per square mile. Contained in 1870-71, one revenue and magisterial court, with four police stations; strength of police, 747. Separate cost of Subdivisional administration, £1927.

Bágherhát.—Market village on the Bhairab river, in Jessor District, Bengal; distant from Khulná 20 miles south-east. Lat. 22° 40′ 5″ N., long. 89° 49′ 50″ E. A little to the west of this village are several interesting ruins of the famous buildings of Khán Jahán. The chief of these is the Shát-gumbuz, a sixty-domed mosque, 3 miles west of Bágherhát,—a splendid building, which was reported in 1871 to be in fair repair, although the roof was covered with jungle. From the Bhairab river at Bágherhát to the Shát-gumbuz there is a brick road, also the work of Khán Jahán, and still in good order, although it is said not to have been repaired since it was made, 400 years ago. About a mile and a half from Bágherhát along this road a track strikes off to a mound, on which is situated, within a double enclosure, Khán

Jahán's tomb, covered by a dome 47 feet in height. Here an annual fair is held in March–April at full moon. The tomb is also visited by pilgrims throughout the year. Khán Jahán, who was one of the earliest reclaimers of the SUNDARBANS, died in 1459.

Bághjálá.—Municipality in the District of the Twenty-Four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 47′ 38″ N., long. 88° 47′ 16″ E.; pop. (1872), 9718, of whom 5325 are Hindus, 4358 Muhammadans, 35 Christians and 'others;' number of houses, 1196; municipal revenue in 1872, £307; rate of municipal taxation, 7½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Bághmatí. — River of Northern Behar. Lat. 25° 51′ 45″ to 27° 43′ 30″ N., long. 85° 22′ to 86° 0′ 45″ E. Rises in Nepál, near Káthmándu, and on entering British territory forms the boundary between the Districts of Muzaffarpur and Champáran, until, near Narwá, it takes a south-westerly direction through Darbhangah District, and ultimately joins the Buri Gandak above Rusera. Of late years it has formed a connection with the KARAI at Hyá *ghát*, in Darbhangah, and its main current now flows down that river and falls into the Tiljugá at Tilkeswar. Being a hill stream, and flowing on a ridge, it rises very quickly after heavy rain, and sometimes causes much damage by overflowing its banks; the current is very swift, running 7 miles an hour in the upper reaches during heavy freshes. A portion of the river has been embanked since 1810 by the managers of the Kantái indigo factory. For some distance north of the Nepál frontier, the river is navigable for boats of about 9 tons burthen; between the frontier and Gáighatí, where the stream is crossed by the Muzaffarpur-Darbhangah road, for boats of 19 tons; and below Gáighatí for boats of 76 tons burthen. Chief tributaries — the Lál Bakyá, Bhurengí, Lakhandai, Little Bághmatí, Dhaus, and Jhím. A former bed of the river, known as the Old Bághmatí, extends from Málái, on the frontier, to Belánpur *ghát*, 3½ miles north-west of Kalyá *ghát*, where it joins the present stream. It carries a good deal of water in the rains, but is only two feet deep in the cold weather. Several factories are situated on its east bank, and draw their water from it.

Bághmatí, Little.—River in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; a tributary of the Bághmatí, which it joins at Hyá *ghát*, about 8 miles south of Darbhangah. Navigable in the rains from Hyá as far as Darbhangah by boats of about 75 tons, and by boats of about 18 tons up to Pálí, 20 miles farther north. The Little Bághmatí, before falling into the Bághmatí, is itself fed by numerous streams, the chief being the Kamlá, the Dhaus, and the Jhím.

Bághmúndí.—Plateau and hill range in Mánbhúm District, Bengal; highest peak, Gangábárí or Gajboru (lat. 23° 12′ N., long. 86° 5′ 30″ E.), a bold, cliff-like hill, with rocky and forest-clad sides, accessible only on

foot, except from the plateau. Distance from Purulia, 20 miles south-west.

Bágli.—One of the States of the Indore Agency, Central India. Area, about 300 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 18,000. The Thákurs, or Chiefs, are Rájputs of the Chanpawat clan. The present Thákur succeeded by adoption in 1866. He is a dependant of Sindhia, to whom he pays an annual tribute of £1647. Revenue from all sources, £6500. Force maintained by the Thákur, 120 foot and 30 horse. Chief village, Bágli; lat. 22° 38′ N., long. 76° 25′ E.

Bágpat.—*Tahsíl* of Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Hindan and the Jumna (Jamuná), and watered from end to end by the Western Jumna Canal. Area, 401 square miles, of which 322 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 247,944; land revenue, £51,466; total revenue, £56,631; rental paid by cultivators, £42,490; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 4s.

Bágpat.—Ancient municipal town in Meerut District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 28° 55′ 50″ N., long. 77° 16′ 5″ E.; pop. (1872), 7367, comprising 5187 Hindus and 2180 Muhammadans. Situated on the left bank of the Jumna, 30 miles from Meerut. Well-built brick houses, often with ornamental fronts; wide streets; two handsome temples and three mosques; two *saráis*, *tahsíli*, police station, post office, dispensary; bridge of boats across the Jumna. Water in wells, sweet and good. Great sugar mart of the District; exports cotton, wheat, red pepper, and dye-stuffs; boats move down the river to Delhi, Agra, and Kálpi. Estimated annual sugar trade, 13,000 tons. Mentioned in the Mahábhárata: halting-place of the Mughal army during their raid in 1399; inhabitants gave assistance to British troops before Delhi in 1857. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £784; from taxes, £537, or 1s. 5½d. per head.

Bagrási.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; 22 miles north-east of Bulandshahr. Population (1872), 4640. Chiefly remarkable for its Pathán inhabitants, who settled in the town under the Lodi dynasty, but still retain their original fair complexion, and refuse to intermarry with their dark-skinned compatriots. They remained loyal during the Mutiny, and fill many important posts under British Government and Native States.

Bagulá (*Bogoola*).—Village in Nadiyá District, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway; distant from Calcutta 57½ miles. A metalled road, 11 miles in length, connects the village with Krishnagar.

Bahádurgarh.—Municipal town in Rohtak District, Punjab, and former capital of a small Native State. Lat. 28° 40′ 30″ N., long. 76° 57′ E.; pop. (1868), 7259, comprising 3452 Hindus, 2853 Muhammadans, 5 Síkhs, and 949 'others.' Lies 18 miles west of Delhi, on the road to Rohtak and Hissár. Formerly known as

Gharafabad: granted in 1754 with 25 other villages by Alamgír II. to Bahádar Khán, a Baluch chief, who built a fort, which he called after his own name; resumed by Sindhia in 1793; bestowed by Lord Lake in 1803 upon Ismail Khán, brother of the Nawáb of Jhajjar, whose family retained the principality until 1857; confiscated after the Mutiny, owing to the disloyalty of Bahádar Jhang Khán, the reigning chief. Police station, school-house. Small trade in country produce; several merchants and money-lenders live in the town. Municipal income in 1875-76, £263; incidence of municipal revenue, 8⅜d. per head of pop. (7127) within municipal limits.

Bahádur Khel.—Salt mine in Kohát District, Punjab, lying in the range of hills to the south of the Teri Toi. Lat. 33° 10′ 30″ N., long. 70° 59′ 15″ E. For a space of 4 miles in length by a quarter of a mile in breadth, an exposed mass of rock-salt crops out between two hills, with several large hillocks, also of salt, on either side. The quarries in work number about 60, and extend over an area one mile long by half a mile broad; the salt is simply hewn out in large blocks with picks and wedges. Government maintains a large preventive establishment, for the preservation of the revenue, and pays a seigniorage to two native families who own the soil. The salt is exported to Kábul, Baluchistán, the Deraját, Sind, and the Indian towns generally. Annual revenue, £1279.

Bahádurpur.—Village in Sylhet District, Assam, on the Lower Barák river, with a large river-borne trade in rice, oil-seeds, and bamboos. Lat. 24° 45′ N., long. 92° 13′ 45″ E. In 1876-77, the registered exports into Bengal included 10,000 *maunds* of unhusked rice.

Bahárágarha.—Market village in Singbhúm District, Bengal; one of the chief trading places of the District. Lat. 22° 16′ 19″ N., long. 86° 45′ 30″ E.

Bahawa.—Village in the Santál Parganás, Bengal, and railway station on the loop line of the East Indian Railway; distance from Calcutta (Howrah), 185 miles.

Baháwalpur.—Native State in political relation with the Government of the Punjab, but situated between that Province and Sind. Lat. 27° 41′ to 30° 22′ 15″ N., long. 69° 47′ to 74° 1′ E. Bounded on the north-east by the British District of Sirsa (Bhattiana), on the east and south by the Rájputána States of Bickaneer (Bikanír) and Jeysulmere (Jaisalmír), on the west by the Indus and the Sutlej (Satlaj) rivers. Area, approximately, 22,000 square miles. Along the rivers lies a strip of alluvial soil from 8 to 14 miles in width. In the centre of the State is a belt of higher land, about 20 miles wide; and on the east commences the great sandy desert which stretches into Rájputána. The surface consists of a succession of undulating sand ridges, from

100 to 500 feet high. The population in 1875 was estimated at 500,000, of whom more than 400,000 are Muhammadans. The language varies from Sindí in the south to Punjabí in the north, the ordinary dialect being a mixture of the two.

At Baháwalpur town there is a silk manufactory, which is said to have been introduced many years ago from Benares. The principal articles of production in the State are *lungis*, *sufi*, silk goods, indigo, cotton, and cereals. Considerable extensions have been lately made in the area irrigated by State canals. New lines of canal have been opened out, and a steam dredger imported from England is used for removing silt and keeping open the channel of communication between the canal heads and the river Indus. As the State of Baháwalpur depends upon inundation canals for the greater portion of its cultivation, these improvements have been of great value, especially the introduction of irrigation into the north-eastern Districts of the State, where it had not existed since the failure of a great natural channel which winds through that region. This channel has been filled with water for a distance of 77 miles, and a new canal, 113 miles in length, with two large branches, has been excavated parallel to the Sutlej about 15 miles inland. In consequence of these and other works, the State revenues have of late nearly doubled. Courts of justice have been established under the general control of a chief court, presided over by three native judges; a system of public instruction, comprising primary, middle, and superior education, has been set on foot. A central jail has been built, where for the first time in India a trial has been given to the separate system of imprisonment, side by side with the partially separate and associated system, with a result exceedingly favourable to the first. Three new towns have been lately founded. A stud farm for improving the breed of horses and cattle has been started with every prospect of success; and recently the extensive jungles have been placed under the scientific supervision of a trained forest conservator with a view to providing a supply of fuel. The Indus Valley State Railway, now in course of construction, will run through a large portion of the territory, crossing the Sutlej river by a magnificent bridge at Baháwalpur town. The gross revenue of Baháwalpur in 1875-76 was estimated at about £200,000.

The political relations of Baháwalpur State with the paramount power are fixed by the treaty of the 22d October 1838. The British Government is bound to protect the principality and territory of Baháwalpur, the Nawáb to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government, and to acknowledge its supremacy. He may not enter into negotiations with any chief or State without the knowledge and sanction of the British Government; he is debarred from aggression; and disputes are to be submitted to British arbitration and award.

The Nawáb and his heirs and successors are to be absolute rulers of their country, and British jurisdiction is not to be introduced.

In precedence, the Nawáb of Bahawalpur ranks third on the list of Punjab chiefs, next after Patiála. He is entitled to a salute of 17 guns; also to a return visit from the Viceroy. The present Nawáb, Sadik Muhammad Khán, who was born about 1860, is by religion a Muhammadan, and belongs to the Dáudputra tribe. According to the custom of the State, the name of the ruler for the time being is usually changed on accession, several of the Nawábs having taken the name of Baháwal Khán. Being a minor, his Highness is now (1876) being educated by an English tutor, and the State is under the administration of a British political agent.

The ancestors of the ruling family originally came from Sind, and assumed independence during the dismemberment of the Duráni empire, which followed the expulsion of Sháh Shujá from Kábul. On the rise of Ranjít Sinh, the Nawáb Baháwal Khán made several applications to the British Government for an engagement of protection. These, however, were declined, although the treaties of Lahore, whereby Ranjít Sinh was confined to the right bank of the Sutlej, in reality effected this object.

At the time of the Afghán war the Nawáb gave us assistance, and again, in 1847-48, during the rebellion of Mooltan, his army co-operated with Sir Herbert Edwardes. For these services the Nawáb was rewarded by the grant of the Districts of Sabzalkot and Bhoung Bara, together with a life pension of one *lákh* of rupees (say £10,000) per annum.

Baháwal Khán was succeeded by his son Sádat Khán, who was expelled by his elder brother. The deposed Nawáb became a refugee in British territory, and died in 1862. In 1863 and 1865, rebellions broke out in Baháwalpur. The Nawáb was victorious in the field; but a fortnight after his final victory he died suddenly, not without suspicion of foul play. The present Nawáb, then a boy of four years of age, was placed on the throne; after several endeavours to arrange for the administration of the country without active interference on the part of Government, it was found necessary, on account of the existing disorganization and disaffection, to place the principality in British hands during the minority of the young chief. Since that time the system of government has been reorganized throughout, and the country has advanced rapidly in material prosperity.

The military force of the State consists of 12 field-guns, 99 artillerymen, 300 cavalry, and 2493 infantry and police.

Baherá.—Market village and police station in Darbhangah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 4′ N., long. 86° 10′ 8″ E. It was originally the headquarters of the Darbhangah Subdivision, but, owing to its unhealthy

and inconvenient situation, it was abandoned in 1865 in favour of Darbhangah town, from which it is distant 20 miles south-east.

Baheri.—*Tahsíl* of Bareilly (Barelí) District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 349 square miles, of which 271 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 197,393; land revenue, £33,967; total revenue, £37,542; rental paid by cultivators, £55,822; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 0½d.

Bahili.—Mountain range in the Native State of Bashahr, Punjab, running in a north-west direction from the Himalayan outliers to the banks of the Sutlej (Satlaj); capped by a rectangular fort. River Naugarrikhola flows at foot. Lat. (of chief peak), 31° 22′ N., long. 77° 42′ E.

Bahraich.—A District of Oudh, in the Fyzabad Division, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between lat. 27° 4′ 30″ and 28° 24′ N., and between long. 81° 5′ and 82° 15′ E. Area (Parliamentary return, 1877), 2645 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1869, 774,477. The shape is that of a regular isosceles triangle, with its base running south-west and the apex to the north-east. Bahraich forms the most northerly District of the Fyzabad Division or Commissionership, and is bounded on the north by the independent State of Nepál, on the east by the District of Gonda, on the south by Gonda and Bara Banki, and on the west by Sitapur and Kheri, the Kauriála or Gogra river forming the boundary.

Physical Aspects.—The physical features of the District of Bahraich are well marked by the course of the Gogra and Rápti rivers. A belt of comparatively high land, raised about 40 feet above the level of the surrounding country, of a uniform breadth of 12 or 13 miles, and a total area of about 670 square miles, runs through the District in a south-easterly direction, forming the watershed between the two rivers. The great plain of the Gogra stretches away from the southern edge of this strip of upland down to the river itself, which flows along the western boundary of the District, at a distance from the plateau varying from 10 miles in the north to 35 miles in the south. Tradition asserts, and the whole appearance of the country supports the theory, that in past ages the Gogra flowed immediately under this high bank, and gradually receded westwards until it reached its present course. The numerous channels with which this alluvial plain is scored in all parts, testify to the fact that it has been subjected at times to fluvial action. These channels, of which some now form mere drainage streams, and others are dry during the greater part of the year, have a general direction parallel to the main river. The Gogra, or Kauriála, as it is called in its upper reaches, enters Bahraich District from the Nepál *tarái* on its extreme north-east corner, at the point where the Mohan joins it from the west. After a course of a few miles it is joined by the Girwa, a little below Bharthápur. Its

only other tributary of importance on the Bahraich side is the Sarju, which also enters from Nepál 22 miles east of the Kauriála, and separated from it by a high tract of forest land. It flows south by an exceedingly tortuous course of 70 miles, and falls into the Kauriála at Katái *ghát.* In the early part of the century the Sarju, instead of joining the Kauriála in Bahraich, flowed on into Gonda District. The stream was turned into its present channel by a European timber merchant, with a view to securing a more expeditious route for floating down his logs. Below the confluence of the Kauriála and Sarju the united stream is called the Gogra. Its volume is further increased by tributaries from Kheri District, but it receives no more affluents on the Bahraich bank, and it leaves the District in its extreme south-west corner. The Rápti, whose valley lies on the northern side of the plateau described above, enters British territory from Nepál about midway on the frontier line, at Sidaniá *ghát;* it thence follows a winding course of 81 miles in a south-easterly direction, till it passes into Gonda District. The principal tributary of the Rápti is the Bhakla, a stream rising in the Nepál *tarái*, which flows immediately under the north bank of the plateau, and joins the Rápti under the name of the Singhia just above Sahet Mahet. All these rivers are navigable throughout the year — the Gogra and Rápti for boats of 20 tons burthen, the others for smaller craft. The river traffic, mainly confined to the export of grain, is very extensive. Valuable 'reserved' timber forests exist in the north of the District, comprising an area of 281 square miles.

History.—According to Hindu tradition, the District derives its name from Bráhma, the Creator, who chose this country as his especial kingdom, and called together a company of holy Rishis to establish his worship in its forests. Hence Bahraich, or Brahm-áich, 'the assembly of Bráhma.' In legendary times it formed a division of the kingdom of Adjodhya, known as Uttar-Kosala, and was governed by Lava, the son of Rámá, whose capital was at Sravasti, now known as Sahet Mahet, the ruins of which are situated in the east of this District, on the south bank of the Rápti. Uttar-Kosala also claims to be the cradle of Buddhism. Sakya Buddha, the founder of the faith, was born within its borders at Kapilánagara (now Nagar, near Basti) about 623 B.C., and passed nineteen years of his life at Sravasti. The king and his minister became converts to the new faith, and Bráhmanism was temporarily overthrown. The Chinese traveller, Fa Hian, who visited the country about 410 A.D., at a time when Buddhism had lost its supremacy, describes the city as in a decayed state, containing only 200 families, but abounding in remains of monastic buildings, memorial pillars, shrines, etc., which have been identified and described by General Cunningham in his *Ancient Geography* (vol. i. pp. 408,

409). Other Buddhistic remains have been identified at Tandwa, a village about 9 miles west of Sahet Mahet, where the Hindus still worship a statue of Mahá Mái, Buddha's mother, under the name of Sitá Mái. Buddhist coins have also been found on the banks of the Gogra. In common with the rest of Eastern Oudh, the District is said to have been at one time under the Bhars, and the name of Bahraich itself is derived by some etymologists from this race. No distinctive memorials of this people are now found. The descendants of the Bhars who escaped the sword of the Rájputs on their conquest of the country, must either have emigrated or been absorbed in the rest of the population. The Muhammadans first made their appearance in Bahraich in 1033 A.D., under Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, who overran the country, but after a series of victories was defeated at Bahraich town by the confederate Rájput princes, and slain with almost his entire army. A famous shrine, frequented by Muhammadans from all parts of India, covers his remains. Various expeditions followed, but it was not till the middle of the 13th century that a regular Muhammadan government was established in the trans-Gogra region. One of the earliest governors was Násír-ud-dín Mahmúd, son of Sultán Shams-ud-dín Altamsh, who vigorously ruled the District until he succeeded to the throne of Delhi in 1246. For the best part of a century after Násír-ud-dín's rule, the records of Bahraich contain nothing noteworthy. The Ansarís, the descendants of the earlier Musalmán settlers and invaders, were gradually extending their hold over the south of the country in Hisámpur; but the older races were not yet crushed, for so late as the end of the 14th century Bhar chieftains held sway both in this *parganá* and in Fakhrpur. In 1340 the first of the series of land grants was made, from which sprang most of the late *tálukdárí* families in the District. In that year, a large tract of country in Jarauli *parganá* was awarded by the Emperor Ghiás-ud-dín to a Persian Sayyid family, who entered into possession after expelling by force the Bhar Rájá, who had previously held the villages. In the next reign — that of Firoz Sháh Tughlak—a large tract in the east of the District, which was overrun by banditti, was made over to a young Janwár officer of the Emperor, named Bariah Sáh, as a reward for ridding the country of the gang and restoring order. Bariah Sáh took up his residence at Ikauna, and became the founder of the great family which in the course of 17 generations has provided landlords for many estates in Bahraich and Gonda Districts. The Raikwárs are the descendants of two brothers, Surájbans Rájputs, who migrated from Raika in Kashmir. The son of one of the brothers obtained service with the Bhar chief of Bamnauti. He served his master so well, and increased the value of his estate to such an extent, that the Rájá refused to

acknowledge the authority of the Delhi Government, and rebelled. The young Raikwár took advantage of the opportunity, slew his master, and possessed himself of the estate. This was about 1450 A.D., and from that day the Raikwárs have remained masters of the western portion of the District. At the end of the 15th century, the District was occupied much as follows:—The Ansáris in the south, the Janwárs in the east, and the Raikwárs in the west, held the southern portion of the District; while the northern tracts were practically independent under the sway of hill chieftains. During the governorship of Kálá Pahár, the nephew of the Emperor Bahlol Lodi, these turbulent chiefs were brought into some sort of subjection, being made, nominally at least, to acknowledge the imperial sway, and pay revenue. In the reign of Akbar (1556-1605), Bahraich District, together with a portion of the Nepál *tarái*, was formed into an administrative division, called *Sarkár* Bahraich. It comprised 11 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with a cultivated area of 1,664,714 *bíghás* or 867 square miles, and paid a total revenue of 24,079,624 *dáms*, which, at the rate of 40 per rupee, is equal to Rs. 601,990 (say £60,199). The Raikwárs and Janwárs continued to extend their possessions to the west and east, principally by further grants, but partly by conquest. A grant of a few small villages in the northern *parganás* to a Muhammadan officer of Sháh Jahán became the nucleus of the great estate of Nánpára, now one of the finest in Oudh. The separation of Oudh from the Delhi Empire, and the independent rule of the Nawáb Wazírs, dates from 1724 A.D. Saádat Khán, the sixth Nawáb, first introduced the farming of the revenue, under which system the local governors bound themselves to pay a certain stated sum into the Government treasury, and were allowed to appropriate to themselves any surplus collections. The system is said to have worked well while its author ruled Oudh, and Bahraich was for a time peculiarly fortunate in its Názims. The ten years' administration of Bálki-dás, and of his son, Rái Amar Sinh, from 1807 to 1816, was the most prosperous period that Bahraich experienced under native government; and it was not for some time that the evil effects of the farming system showed themselves. The second successor of Rái Amar Sinh, Hádi Alí Khán, commenced the practice of extortion by demanding an increase of one-eighth above the rates formerly paid. He found it difficult to realize this demand, and as a means to that end he favoured the system of the incorporation of the *khálsá* lands (independent villages held under direct engagement with the State) in the great *tálukdárs'* estates. This policy was continued under his successors, until, between 1816 and 1856, 788 such villages were absorbed in the nine great estates. It was, however, during the farming of one Raghubar Dayal, who held the contract of the revenues for Bahraich and Gonda in 1846-47, that

oppression rose to its height. His administration is described as 'a reign of terror, such as has seldom been experienced by any Province in the worst days of native rule.' A British officer who was deputed to report on the country that had suffered from this man, wrote as follows in 1849:—'The once flourishing Districts of Gonda and Bahraich, so noted for fertility and beauty, are now for the greater part uncultivated. Villages completely deserted, in the midst of lands devoid of all tillage, everywhere meet the eye. From Fyzabad to Bahraich, a distance of 80 miles, I passed over plains which had been well cultivated, but now lay entirely waste—a scene for two years of great misery, ending in desolation.' The annexation of Oudh, in February 1856, put an end to this misrule and misery. British officers were appointed, police and revenue establishments reorganized, courts of justice established, and, most important of all, an equitable settlement of the land revenue effected. In doing this, as few changes as possible were made regarding title to property. Of 3682 villages which the *tálukdárs* held in the year preceding annexation, the possession of 2998 was confirmed to them. Of the remainder, one estate, comprising 305 villages, escheated for non-payment of revenue; for 230 deserted villages no settlement was made; while in 78 villages only were the *tálukdárs* ousted in favour of rival claimants. The great landholders had been liberally dealt with, but on the outbreak of the Mutiny many of them preferred to return to the old state of lawlessness which had preceded the enforced peace and order of British rule. A section of them declared against us in 1857, and their estates, comprising 1418 villages, were transferred to other landholders who had remained loyal during the struggle.

Population.—The population of Bahraich, according to the Census of 1869, is 406,769 males and 367,708 females; total, 774,477, dwelling in 1965 villages and townships, and 153,007 houses; average pressure of the population on the soil, 293 per square mile. The Hindus number 676,313, or 87·32 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 98,124, or 12·68 per cent.; Christians, 40, viz. 34 Europeans and 6 Eurasians. The higher-caste Hindus are thus represented:—Bráhmans, 71,215; Kshattriyas, 20,514; and Vaisyas, 15,725. Of the lower-class Hindus the principal castes are—Ahír, 91,479, the most numerous caste in the District; Chámár, 56,329; Garariya, 15,068; Kahár, 32,319; Kúrmí, 79,723; Kori, 37,500; Lodhá, 31,231; Muráo, 21,411; Náo, 15,740; and Pásí, 29,808. The higher classes of Muhammadans are subdivided as follows:—Patháñ, 21,288; Shaikh, 9967; Sayyid, 1795; Mughal, 1170. The population of the District is almost entirely rural. There are only two municipal towns with upwards of 5000 inhabitants, viz. BAHRAICH, population 18,986, and NANPARA, 6866. The other towns of importance are—JARWAL, 4510;

BHINGA, 4341; and BALRAMPUR, 2578. Of the 1828 villages or townships, 752 contain less than 200 inhabitants, 590 from 200 to 500, 393 from 500 to 1000, 98 from 1000 to 2000, 13 from 2000 to 5000, and 2 more than 6000 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—The principal agricultural staples of the District are rice, Indian corn, barley, and wheat, which together cover 47·9 per cent. of the total cultivated area. Two great harvests are raised during the year, the *kharíf* or winter, and the *rabí* or spring crops. According to the Settlement Report, the acreage under the different crops is as follows:—*Kharíf*—rice, 167,041; Indian corn, 76,217; *joár*, 10,565; *más-kalái*, 12,388; *kodo*, 17,104; other crops, 67,012: total *kharíf* cultivation, 350,327. *Rabí*—wheat, 54,411; barley, 65,416; wheat and barley mixed, 37,036; rape-seed, 24,935; linseed, 8059; mustard, 1256; cotton, 2932; gram, 12,711; *masurí*, 9731; *arhar*, 11,955; tobacco, 724; sugar-cane, 2480; peas, 3397; vegetables, 2122; other crops, 163,416: total *rabí* cultivation, 401,481. Total cultivated area, including fallow land, 836,157 acres. The average holding of each cultivator is 5·25 acres. Irrigation is largely practised. The method adopted is described in the article on BARA BANKI DISTRICT. The condition of the peasantry is said to be better in Bahraich than in any other part of Oudh, and to be fast improving. Rents, although high, are lower than in some Districts, and are reported to be 10 per cent. below the rates prevailing in Bara Banki. The latest official return gives the rates for land growing rice or wheat at 7s. 9d. per acre, and for maize or barley at 6s. 8½d. per acre. Rents are commonly paid in grain at the rate of one-half the crop raised. A system of modified serfage is common here, as in other Districts east of the Gogra, by which a man receives an advance from a farmer of a sum varying from £3 to £10, and practically becomes his bond serf for life, receiving, however, one-sixth of the crop which he raises. The common rate of wages for agricultural labour is 1½d. a day in money, with an allowance of parched grain, generally maize, worth about 1s. a month. Prices of food grains are about 10 per cent. lower than those prevalent in Lucknow, but are rapidly rising. The Administrative Report for 1875-76 returns the rates as follow:—Wheat, 1st quality 3s. 11d., 2nd quality 3s., per cwt.; rice, 1st quality 5s. 5d., 2nd quality 4s. 9d., per cwt. The grains, however, which form the ordinary food of the people, are much lower in price. As indicated in the historical sketch, the land is held for the most part in *tálukdárí* tenure, the superior proprietary right resting in a single person, the lord of the domain; and perhaps in no District of Oudh was the feudalization of the country so complete on the annexation of the Province as in Bahraich. These *tálukdárí* estates are 36 in number, comprising 1760 villages, the revised Government assessment being £94,148. Of

these 11 are ancestral, 7 were acquired during the 40 years preceding annexation, while 18 were confiscated for rebellion during the Mutiny, and conferred upon fresh owners as a reward for loyal service. Scarcity, caused by drought, is the most common natural calamity to which Bahraich District is liable, the northern tracts being the first to feel the pinch of famine. The two last dearths occurred in 1869 and 1874. Five first-class District roads intersect the District, aggregating 106 miles in length; the second-class roads aggregate 208 miles. A bridge of boats is maintained across the Gogra at Bahrampur on the road to Lucknow during the dry season, replaced by a well-served ferry during the rains. Three other main, and ten minor, ferries are also kept up on the Gogra, and seven on the Rápti.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District consists principally of the export down the rivers of grain, clarified butter (*ghí*), and timber. Piece-goods, salt, and pulses form the chief imports. No statistics exist as to the value of the trade, which is registered in Fyzabad District. The timber chiefly comes from the Nepál forests, whence it is floated down the Kauriála and Rápti. The Government forests within the District have only been recently reserved, and have not as yet yielded much timber. The main timber mart in the District is Bahramghat on the Gogra, whence the logs are conveyed southward by road to Lucknow and Cawnpore. The manufactures of Bahraich are confined to coarse cotton weaving, common throughout the District, and a good quality of felt manufactured at Bahraich and Jarwal towns.

Administration.—The total revenue of the District in 1875-76 amounted to £104,724, of which £97,533 was derived directly from the land. The total expense of civil administration, as represented by the cost of officials and police of all kinds, amounted in the same year to £11,395. Thirteen civil and revenue, and 15 magisterial, courts are maintained in the District. The police force consists of three bodies—the regular police, numbering 448 officers and men, maintained at a cost to the State of £6142 a year; a village watch, numbering 2755, and maintained by the villagers or landholders at an estimated cost of £7974; and a municipal force of 60 officers and men, costing £3883 from local funds. During the year 1873, 1786 cases were brought by the police before the magistrates, and 1415 convictions obtained. The Government or aided educational institutions consist of the District school in Bahraich town, with three suburban branches, attended by 236 boys; 2 middle-class English schools, with 120 pupils; 1 vernacular middle-class school, attended by 74 boys; and 39 village schools, attended by 1406 boys. This is exclusive of uninspected village schools, for which no returns are available. Several of the landholders maintain schools at their own expense, and take a real interest in the spread of education.

Medical Aspects.—The climate resembles in some points that of Bengal, being cooler than in Districts south of the Gogra, but more moist and enfeebling. Average annual rainfall, 45 inches. The prevalent diseases are fever, diarrhœa, goitre, and skin disorders. Two Government charitable dispensaries are maintained at Bahraich and Hisámpur towns, with an annual average of 220 in-door and 7907 outdoor patients.

Bahraich.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision in Bahraich District, Oudh, lying between lat. 27° 15′ 45″ and 27° 56′ N., and between long. 81° 29′ 45″ and 82° 15′ E. Bounded on the north by Nánpára *tahsíl* and the independent territory of Nepál, on the east by Balrámpur, on the south by Gonda District, and on the west by Hisámpur *tahsíl.* Area, 992 square miles, of which 436 are cultivated; pop. (1869), Hindus, 237,875; Muhammadans, 28,688; total, 266,563, viz. 138,803 males and 127,760 females: number of villages or towns, 721; average density of population, 266 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the four *parganás* of Bahraich, Ikauna, Bhinga, and Tulsipur.

Bahraich.—*Parganá* in Bahraich *tahsíl*, Bahraich District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Bhinga, Charda, and Nánpára; on the east by Ikauna; and on the south and west by Hisámpur and Fakhrpur *parganás.* The history of the *parganá* is included in the account of BAHRAICH DISTRICT. Its present area is 329 square miles, with a maximum length from south-east to north-west of 32 miles, and an average breadth of 13 miles. Under native rule its area was three times as large, including the whole of Bhinga and Ikauna, besides portions of Nánpára and Charda. It forms a portion of the belt of high land which runs through the District in a south-easterly direction, having Bahraich and Nánpára towns on its south-western edge. This plateau, about 30 feet high, forms the watershed between the Gogra and Rápti rivers. The *parganá* is well wooded, some of the mango groves being unusual size; but its most marked feature is the wide expanse waste land. Out of a total area of 329 square miles, at the time the settlement measurements, only 111 were under the plough. Th soil is generally a good loam, consisting, as a rule, of two-third clay and one-third sand; and, with fair farming and irrigation, it wi produce excellent crops. Government land revenue, £10,256 average incidence, 2s. 7¾d. per acre of cultivated area; 1s. 2d. pe acre of assessable area; and 1s. 0⅜d. per acre of total area. Pop (1869), Hindus, 84,777; Muhammadans, 17,391; total, 102,168, viz 53,680 males and 48,488 females: number of villages, 329; averag density of population, 313 per square mile. Four roads lead from Bahraich town to Gonda, Ikauna, Bhinga, and Nánpára, while car tracks branch in every direction. The traffic is mainly grain, which i exported to the marts of Colonelganj and Nawábganj, and *vi*

Bahramghat to Lucknow. Besides the town schools at Bahraich, Government schools are situated in four villages, attended by 134 boys.

Bahraich.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Bahràich District, Oudh; situated in the centre of the District, on the road from Bahramghat to Nepálganj. Lat. 27° 34′ 52″ N., long. 81° 38′ 2″ E.; pop. (1869), Hindus, 9,305; Muhammadans, 10,908; total, 20,213, residing in 4260 houses. The residences of the European officers, and the Government buildings, lie on a high bank above the old bed of the Gogra (Ghágra). As a commercial town, Bahraich seems never to have thriven. The municipality can with difficulty raise funds for its necessary expenditure. The trade of the town is principally in articles of local consumption, the total value of goods paying octroi in 1870-71 being £37,227, chiefly consisting of grain, sugar, *ghí*, dried fruits, spices, etc. There is a fairly brisk local trade in piece-goods and copper utensils. The through traffic in 1870-71 was valued at £21,959, comprising grain, sugar, *ghí*, oil, timber, tobacco, hides, etc. Government District school, attended by 240 pupils; 12 lower-class schools, with 211 boys. The American Methodist Mission has a station in the town, and maintains a school. Town police force, 24 of all ranks; Government dispensary. The principal building of interest is the shrine of Masáúd, a famous warrior and saint, who invaded Bahraich about 1033 A.D., and who, after several victories, was defeated and slain by the confederate Hindu princes. The shrine is maintained by the reputed descendants of some servants of the hero, and 150,000 pilgrims, both Muhammadans and Hindus, visit the place during an annual fair held in the month of Jaishtha. Tombs of his principal followers are also objects of veneration. A famous Muhammadan monastery still exists in the town, founded by a holy man from Mooltan about 1620. The Daulat-kháná, once a handsome range of uildings, now in ruins, was built by the Nawáb Asif-ud-daulá, who equently visited the District on hunting expeditions. Municipal venue in 1876-77, £1317; incidence of taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head of op. within municipal limits.

Bahramghat.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh, on the right ank of the Gogra (Ghágra) river. Lat. 27° 7′ N., long. 81° 30′ E. n important trading mart. A branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand ailway runs to Bahramghat from the main line at Nawábganj, and onnects it with the capital, Lucknow, 39 miles distant; and a bridge of oats here spans the Gogra (Ghágra), and opens up the country on the ther side of the river. Considerable traffic is carried both by the ailway and the bridge. The principal exports by train are *ghí*, *joár*, imber, cotton seed, etc.; and the imports, piece-goods, salt, and nseed. The traffic over the bridge consists mainly of timber, rice nd other food grains, oil-seeds, cattle, hemp, etc., from Bahraich on

the north; and cotton cloth, salt, pulses, metal utensils, etc., from Southern Oudh and Cawnpore.

Bahrámpur.—*See* BERHAMPUR.

Bahu.—A river in Cuddapah District, Madras; rises in the Madanapalli *táluk*, and, passing through Voilpád and Raichoti *táluks*, joins with other streams to form the Cheyair.

Baideswar.—Village on the Mahánadí river, in Bánkí State, Orissa. Lat. 20° 21′ 15″ N., long. 85° 25′ 30″ E. Has traffic in salt, spices, cocoa-nuts, and brass utensils, which are taken to Sambalpur in the Central Provinces; cotton, wheat, rice, oil-seeds, iron, *tasar* cloth, etc., are brought back in exchange. Police outpost.

Baidur.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 52′ 15″ N., long. 74° 39′ 30″ E.; houses, 898; pop. (1871), 1924. The extreme north-western town of the Presidency, 18 miles north of Kundapur.

Baidyabátí.—Municipality and important market town on the Húgli river, Húglí District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway; 15 miles from Calcutta. Lat. 22° 47′ 25″ N., long. 88° 22′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 13,332, comprising 12,206 Hindus and 1126 Muhammadans. A market, said to be one of the largest in Bengal, is held here twice a week, at which large transactions take place in various kinds of produce, and specially in jute, which is brought from all parts of the adjacent country. Rope made of jute and hemp is manufactured in the town. Municipal income in 1876-77, £681; rate of municipal taxation, 11½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Baidyanáth.—Lat. 25° 17′ N., long. 83° 36′ 15″ E. Village in Sháhabad District, Bengal; contains a ruin, with many obelisks and images, attributed to Mádan Pál, a Svirá Rájá.

Baikal.—Town and fort, South Kanara District, Madras.—*See* BEKAL.

Baikanthpur.—Municipality in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 29′ 30″ N., long. 85° 25′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 6088, of whom 5797 are Hindus and 291 Muhammadans. Situated on the Ganges 5 miles below the point where the Púnpún joins that river, Baikanthpur is a place of great sanctity, thronged by pilgrims at the festival of *Sivarátri*. The town was much larger in the beginning of this century than it now is, and then had a considerable weaving population. Municipal income in 1876-77, £147; rate of municipal taxation, 5d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Baila Bhela.—Town in Rae Bareli District, Oudh. Rather a collection of hamlets than a town. Pop. (1869), 4887, principally Sivaite Hindus. Bi-weekly market. Government school.

Bailgaon.—Village in Unao District, Oudh; 5 miles north-west of Purwa, and 16 miles south-east of Unao town. Ruined fortress; bi-weekly market, attended by from 4000 to 5000 people; trade in

jewellery, wood, iron, agricultural implements, cloth; school. Pleasantly situated among groves of mango and *mahuá* trees.

Bailhongal.—Town in Belgaum District, Bombay.—*See* HONGAL.

Bainchí.—Village on the Grand Trunk Road, in Húglí District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway; distant from Calcutta 44 miles. Lat. 23° 7′ N., long. 88° 15′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 4538. Once notorious for its bands of *dákáits*, or gang-robbers.

Bairamghát.—Village in Ellichpúr District, Berár; with great annual fair held in October, at which 50,000 people assemble. Lat. 21° 22′ 30″ N., long. 77° 38′ 30″ E. Sacrifices of thousands of animals are offered before a rock, approached by a long flight of steps, the Hindus on one side and the Musalmáns on the other.

Baitaraní River.—The Styx of Hindu mythology, rises among the hills in the north-western portion of Keunjhar State, Orissa; flows first in a south-westerly and then in an easterly direction, forming successively the boundary between Keunjhar and Morbhanj States, between Keunjhar and the District of Cuttack, and between Cuttack and Balasor. Lat. 20° 44′ 45″ to 21° 27′ 45″ N., long. 85° 35′ to 86° 51′ 15″ E. In the latter District its waters join those of the Bráhmaní, and the united stream flows, under the name of the Dhámrá, into the Bay of Bengal. The river is navigable as far as Olokh, 15 miles from its mouth; beyond this point it is not affected by the tide, and above it the river is fordable during the hot season. There is a legend that Rámá, when marching to Ceylon to rescue his wife Sítá from the ten-headed demon Rávana, halted at the river-side on the borders of Keunjhar; and, in commemoration of this event, large numbers of people visit the river every January. Chief tributaries, Sálnadí and Malai in Balasor District. Principal places on the banks, Anandapur, Olokh, and Chándbálí.

Bajána.—Tributary State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 57′ 45″ and 23° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 71° 39′ 45″ and 71° 59′ 30″ E. long.; situated inland between the *Rann* of Cutch (Kachchh) and Ahmedabad District. Pop. (1872), 17,456, distributed among 26 villages; estimated gross revenue, £5000. The country is flat; the soil is light and in many places impregnated with salt, producing only cotton and the commoner varieties of grain; there are no rivers, and the supply of water is obtained entirely from wells. The climate is hot and dry. The prevailing disease is fever. Most of the inhabitants belong to a predatory class of Muhammadans called Játs. There are no made roads. Communication is kept up by bullock carts and pack-bullocks. The nearest port is Dholera. There is one school, with 50 pupils. Bajána ranks as a fourth-class State among the many petty States of Káthiáwár. The ruler first entered into engagements with the British

in 1807. The present (1875) chief is Malik Nasib Khán, a Muhammadan, forty-eight years of age. He pays to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh a tribute of £803, 14s., and maintains a military force of 50 men. He holds no *sanad* authorizing adoption; succession follows the rule of primogeniture.

Bajána.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Káthiáwár, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 7′ N., long. 71° 49′ 15″ E.

Baj-baj (*Budge-Budge*).—Small village on the bank of the Húglí, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 29′ N., long. 88° 14′ E. It is about 15 miles by river below Calcutta, and is noted as being the site of a fort captured from the forces of Siráj-ud-daulá by Clive in 1756. The inhabitants belong almost entirely to fishing castes.

Bájitpur.—Town and *tháná* (police station) in Maimansinh District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 12′ 40″ N., long. 90° 59′ 43″ E.; number of houses, 742; population about 3700. Has a municipal police force. Municipal revenue in 1869-70, £68. Formerly noted for its muslin manufacture. The East India Company had a factory here.

Bajwára.—Village in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab; 1½ mile east of Hoshiárpur. Pop. (1868), 2641. Said to have been formerly the principal place in this neighbourhood, and 'celebrated for cloth-weavers and pious Bráhmans.' The buildings extend for 2285 acres, but the greater part now consists of ruins, and furnishes broken bricks for metalling roads. Contains a picturesque brick fort, the only one in the District not dismantled since the advent of British rule.

Bákarganj.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 49′ and 23° 4′ 45″ N. lat., and between 89° 53′ 45″ and 91° 4′ 50″ E. long.; area (1877), after recent transfers, 4066 square miles; population, proportionately reduced from the Census of 1872, 1,874,201 souls. It forms the southernmost District of the Dacca Division, and is bounded on the north by the Districts of Dacca and Farídpur; on the east by the Meghná and Sháhbázpur rivers, separating it from Noákhálí and Tipperah; on the south by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by Jessor and Farídpur Districts. The Administrative Headquarters are at BARISAL, the chief town of the District, situated on the river of the same name.

Physical Aspects.—Bákarganj is a typical part of the alluvial delta formed by the three great river systems of Bengal. It is watered by the united streams of the Ganges, the Brahmaputra, and the Meghná, and traversed by innumerable rivers and water-courses, forming a most intricate network of channels, which are ever changing their courses. The whole District presents the appearance of an unbroken level, although there is a very slight and gradual decline from the east towards

the west and north-west. The level of even the highest part of the District is only just sufficient to protect it from ordinary floods, while the western and north-western parts lie so low that the water of the numerous channels and streams collects in extensive marshes and swamps. These are often of great size and depth, abound in fish, and frequently during the rainy season overspread the adjacent country. Among the principal swamps (*jhíls*) are—(1) Balbárídaluá marsh, occupying an ordinary area of 39·45 square miles; (2) Bághiá marsh, 30·39 square miles; (3) Sáltí marsh, 24·71 square miles; and (4) Rámsil marsh, 21·61 square miles. On the southern face of the District, bordering on the Bay of Bengal, lies the Bákarganj portion of the SUNDARBANS or seaboard jungles. But in many parts the land has now been cleared almost to the sea. The river system of Bákarganj consists of the offshoots from the great estuary of the Meghná, and the tributaries and distributaries of the Ariál Khán and the Báleswar, the two other principal rivers of the District. The numerous names given to these rivers in different parts of their courses cause great confusion. The Meghná estuary itself is called at different parts of its course the Sátbáriá, the Bokáinagar, the Ilsá, the Tetuliá, and the Sháhbázpur; and the same perplexing multiplicity of names extends even to the smallest *khál* or water-course, which the villagers on one side often call by a name quite different from that by which it is known on the other. These *kháls* intersect the District in every direction, and are so numerous that it is difficult to get about except by boat at any season of the year. Indeed, there are hardly any roads in the District, and every peasant has his own boat in which he moves from place to place. The few trading villages to be found in the District are invariably situated on the banks of a stream, but the inhabitants do not love to congregate into villages. Each man builds his homestead on his own land, generally on the highest spot in his holding, without any reference to his neighbours; and as a rule, therefore, the homesteads are apart from each other. They are surrounded with dense plantations of cocoanut and betel-nut palms and bamboos, presenting a very picturesque appearance. The only forests in the District are in the southern Sundarbans tract; they yield an abundant supply of timber and firewood, and some honey and wax, and give shelter to tigers, leopards, and other wild animals. Game-birds are very numerous in the District, and fish abound in all the streams, many of which also contain formidable crocodiles. Marabouts, kingfishers, flamingoes, cranes, pelicans, and wild geese are killed for the sake of their plumage, which is sent to Calcutta.

Administrative History.—Bákarganj probably formed part of Todar Mall's (1582) *sarkár* of Sonárgaon. In the readjustment of Bengal by Sultán Shujá in 1658, the Bákarganj portion of the Sundarbans is for the

first time mentioned, under the name of Murádkháná. The next settlement of Bengal was made by Nawáb Jafar Khán in 1721, during the reign of Muhammad Sháh. By this settlement all Bengal was divided into thirteen *chaklás*, one of which, *chaklá* Jahángírnagar, included Bákarganj and the Sundarbans. From the cession of Bengal to the East India Company in 1765 down to 1817, the District formed part of the Dacca Collectorate, but was administered by a judge and magistrate of its own, whose headquarters were originally at the town of Bákarganj, near the junction of the Krishnakáti and Khairabad rivers. This station is now in ruins. In 1801, the administrative headquarters were transferred to Barisál. There have been numerous changes of jurisdiction in the District, the most important being the transfer (in 1869) to Bákarganj of the large island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, together with the adjacent sandbanks and islands (of which Mánpurá is the chief) from Noákhálí District.

Population.—Previous to 1872, more than one attempt had been made to enumerate, or rather to estimate, the population of Bákarganj, but no satisfactory results were obtained. The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 2,377,433 persons, inhabiting 4269 villages and 321,657 houses, the average pressure of the population on the soil being 482 per square mile. Since 1872 the Subdivision of Mádárípur, excluding Gaurnadi *tháná*, has been transferred from Bákarganj to Farídpur District, leaving the present area at 4066 square miles, with a population of 1,874,201. The number of villages per square mile in 1872 was 87, and of houses, 65; number of persons per village, 557; and per house, 7·4. Classified according to sex, there were 1,204,237 males and 1,173,196 females; proportion of males, 50·7 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under twelve years, 466,218 males and 384,062 females; above twelve years, 738,019 males and 789,134 females. The excessive proportion of male above female children is due to the fact that here, as elsewhere throughout India, the natives consider that girls attain womanhood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood. The ethnical division of the people shows :—Non-Asiatics, 27; Eurasians, 127; aboriginal tribes, 3023; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 342,583; Hindu castes, 476,145; Hindus not recognising caste, 10,497; Muhammadans, 1,540,965; and Maghs, 4066. During the 17th and 18th centuries the Maghs or Arakanese made regular raids in fleets of armed vessels up the rivers of Eastern Bengal, causing so much devastation that, in one of the early maps, a considerable tract is marked 'depopulated by the Maghs.' The Magh settlers in Bákarganj have subsided under British rule into quiet, peaceable, and industrious communities. They are nominally Buddhists, but, from long residence in a District where Buddhism is unknown, nearly all traces of their religion have been obliterated, and

many of them have embraced Hinduism. They are fond of their old homes, to which they occasionally make short visits. They adhere to their own mode of living, intermarry only among themselves, and build their dwellings on the model of Burmese houses. They first settled in the Sundarbans more than seventy years ago, when they fled from their country, during the war between the Pegu and Arakan Rájás, which ended in the conquest of Arakan. Of the higher castes of Hindus there are in Bákarganj — Bráhmans, 65,254; Kshattriyas, 112; Rájputs, 952; Baidyas, 12,960; and Káyasths, 125,164. Amongst the Sudrás, or low castes, the most important are the Chandáls (fishermen, cultivators, etc.), who form by far the most numerous caste in the District, 326,775; Nápits, or barbers, 40,044; and Kaibarttás (cultivators and fishermen), 29,341. The Hindus, as grouped together on the basis of religion, number altogether 827,393, or 34·8 per cent. of the population; while the number of the followers of Islám is 2,377,433, or 64·8 per cent. The Christians number 4852, of whom 154 are Europeans or Eurasians. Amongst the Muhammadans, the Faráizís, a puritan, but here not actively fanatical, sect, deserve special mention. They are very numerous in Bákarganj, especially in the southern parts of the District, but the original home of the sect was in FARIDPUR, and a brief account of its origin and rise will be found in the article on that District. The population of Bákarganj is, as has been stated, purely rural, and there is no tendency to gather into towns. The only town containing more than 5000 inhabitants is the civil station of BARISAL (population, 7684). In addition to Barisál, there are three other municipal towns, or rather large villages, viz. NALCHITI, JHALAKATI or Mahárájganj, and DAULAT KHAN—all considerable trading places. Jhálakátí is one of the largest timber markets in Eastern Bengal, especially for the sale of *sundrí* wood, which is exported to Calcutta and elsewhere for fuel. Daulat Khán is the principal village in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, and the headquarters of that Subdivision. Amongst the other trading villages of the District may be mentioned—Mádárípur Sáhibganj, Angariá, Sayyidpur, and Jabar Anlá. Fairs are held in November at Lákhutiá, Bánarípára, and Kulsokátí; in October at Jhálakátí, and in March at Pirozpur. These are not religious gatherings, but meetings for general amusement and trade; the largest of them is attended by five or six thousand persons.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple crop of the District, and indeed the only cereal grown to any extent. It consists of three sorts—*áman*, or winter rice; *áus*, the autumn crop; and *boro*, or spring rice. These are subdivided into more than a hundred well-recognised varieties. The *áman*, which is the most important crop, is sown on the setting in of the rains in spring, transplanted between the beginning of June and

the middle of August, and reaped in November and December. It requires much care, as it will not grow unless the ears can be kept well above the flood-water. *Aus* rice is sown in spring and the early part of the hot weather, and reaped in August. In many parts of the District it is transplanted like the *áman* crop, but in the northern portion it is simply sown broadcast. The *boro* crop is generally sown broadcast in December, and reaped in April or May; it is also sometimes transplanted. Among the other crops of the District are mustard, pulses (*khesárí* and *musurí*), linseed, betel-nuts, cocoa-nuts, sugar-cane, safflower, and *pán*. Jute is grown plentifully in the northern part of the District. Of the total area nearly three-fourths are under cultivation. Rice lands yield from 12 cwts. of unhusked rice per acre in the case of inferior land, to as much as 43 cwts. in the case of very fine land; a good average out-turn is from 17½ to 22 cwts. per acre. The price of paddy varies, but it is seldom worth to the cultivator more than 2s. 8d. a cwt.; and, speaking generally, a husbandman would be glad if he could sell it on the ground at 2s., the price in many places being as low as 1s. 6d. or 1s. 8d. a cwt. From the above figures it will be seen that it is not easy to estimate the value of the rice crop per acre; an average calculation which has been made, however, shows the ordinary net profit to the cultivator to be, all things considered, about £1, 10s. The condition of the peasantry is on the whole satisfactory; almost every man has his own little plot of ground, on which he grows sufficient for the wants of his family. The average size of these little farms is about 4 acres. Most of the husbandmen are thought to possess rights of occupancy. Rates of rent vary considerably, according to the situation and quality of the soil; rice land rents at from 3s. to 18s. per acre; sugar-cane and *pán* plantations at £1, 4s.; homestead land surrounding dwellings at from 9s. to 30s. Wages generally have doubled during the last few years, the present average rates being as follows:—Coolies, 6d. a day; agricultural day-labourers, 6d., 8d., or 1s. a day; bricklayers, carpenters, etc., when not paid by the job, 30s. to 40s. a month. Although the prices of food have also risen, the increase has not been so marked as in the case of wages. The best cleaned rice in 1871 sold at from 4s. 9d. to 5s. 5d. a cwt., and common husked rice at from 4s. to 4s. 9d. A special report on the land tenures of Bákarganj District will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. v. pp. 365-379.

Natural Calamities.—Bákarganj is subject to blight, which cannot, however, be said to materially affect the prosperity of the District, and to flood, which often causes much injury. These floods are generally occasioned either by the rising of the rivers before they enter the District, or by the high tides which accompany cyclones. One of the most serious floods of the present century took place in 1822, in

which it was estimated that nearly 40,000 people lost their lives; the loss of cattle was estimated at 98,830 head, and the value of miscellaneous property destroyed at £132,669; the records of the Collectorate were also swept away and totally destroyed. Other destructive floods have occurred since then, in 1825, 1832, 1855, 1867, 1869, and 1870. In November 1876 the islands at the mouth of the Meghná were swept by a terrible cyclone, which was followed by a severe outbreak of cholera. The erection of protective works against these inundations would involve enormous expenditure; no such works exist at present. Bákarganj is not liable to famines, and did not suffer during 1866, although prices rose considerably in that year, owing to the greatly increased export of rice to other parts of the country. The maximum price of paddy during the famine of 1866 was 8s. 10½d. a cwt., and of husked rice, 17s. 1d. a cwt. If these rates were reached in January or February, and if the rise of prices was known to be caused by the failure of the crops within the District, famine might reasonably be expected later in the year. A deficient rainfall, which in other Districts would seriously diminish the crop, might in Bákarganj prove rather beneficial than otherwise.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is for the most part carried on at river-side markets, the principal of which have already been mentioned; but a good deal of business is also done at the fairs, which are attended by large numbers of people. The chief exports are rice, betel-nuts, cocoa-nuts, and *sundrí* wood; the principal imports—piece-goods, salt, tobacco, oil, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. Jute is exported to a considerable extent from the Mádárípur Subdivision. The exports greatly exceed the imports in value. The only manufactures of the District are pottery, coarse cloth, oil, *gur* or molasses, and mats; of these only the pottery, which is of excellent quality, is exported. The few roads in the District are very short, and are not maintained by the Public Works Department, regular communication being, as has already been said, conducted entirely by water.

Administration.—In 1818, the first year after its separation from Dacca, the net revenue of Bákarganj was £96,438, and the net civil expenditure, £13,647. By 1860-61, the net revenue had increased to £150,305, and the net civil expenditure to £32,584—that is to say, between 1818 and 1860, the revenue of the District increased by 55 per cent., while the expenditure more than doubled, the increase being 139 per cent. In 1870-71, the net revenue of the District had further risen to £203,445 (showing an increase since 1860 of 35 per cent.), and the civil expenditure to £44,902, or an increase since 1860 of 38 per cent. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting in 1870 to £142,232, or seven-tenths of the whole; in 1818 it was £89,566. In 1818, there were 1 magisterial court and 3 revenue

and civil courts in the District; in 1850, there were 3, and in 1869, 8 magisterial courts, the number of revenue and civil courts in these years being 10 and 15 respectively. For police purposes, Bákarganj is divided into 18 police circles (*thánás*). In 1871, the regular police force numbered 583 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £11,186. There was also a municipal force of 53 men, costing £403, and a rural police or village watch of 5135, costing £18,486. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 5771 officers and men, giving one man to every ·85 square mile, or to every 412 of the population. The total cost was £30,075, equal to an average of £6, 1s. 9d. per square mile of area, and a fraction over 3d. per head of the population. Murders are numerous in Bákarganj, 32 having been reported in 1871, and 16 in the following year. The frequency of this and other crimes, such as *dákáití* or gang-robbery, has been attributed to the isolation of the dwellings, together with the consequent freedom of the people from those restraining influences which a community exercises on the members constituting it. Education is in a very backward state in the District, a fact which is explained by the circumstance that, except at the civil station, almost the entire community is composed of peasants and fishermen, all intent upon earning their daily food, and caring nothing for an education which will not assist them to do so. A small triangular tract between the Barisál, Ariál Khán, and Swarúpkátí rivers, in the centre of the District, which forms an exception to this state of things in the character of its inhabitants, contains nearly all the State schools. The number of Government and aided schools in 1860-61 was 3, attended by 389 pupils; in 1870-71, the number of such schools was 67, and of the pupils attending them 3116. The Barisál Government school is the largest in Eastern Bengal, and financially the most successful, the total cost to Government in 1871 for its 355 pupils being only £31, 12s. In 1872 the District was divided into 5 administrative Subdivisions, namely, Barisál, Dakshín Sháhbázpur, Mádáripur, Pírozpur, and Patuákhálí. These were subdivided into 54 fiscal divisions (*parganás*).

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bákarganj is said to be one of the healthiest in Eastern Bengal, owing to the strong south-west monsoon, which blows up fresh from the sea, and keeps the atmosphere cool. But the heavy rainfall and consequent humidity of the atmosphere, combined with the use of bad water, act as sources of disease. The average monthly temperature varies from 78° minimum to 85° maximum, the thermometer ranging from 62° to 98°. The rainfall in 1871 was 96·24 inches at Barisál, and 112·96 inches at Daulat Khán. The principal endemic diseases are fevers of all kinds and cholera; the latter disease and small-pox occasionally occur as epidemics. Cattle

disease has been prevalent of late years. A curious phenomenon, known as the 'Barisál guns,' deserves mention in connection with the meteorological aspects of this District. It consists of loud reports heard from the direction of the sea, resembling the sound of guns. The causes of this phenomenon have been much discussed, but no conclusive explanation has yet been afforded.

Bákarganj.—Former headquarters of the District of the same name, Bengal; situated near the junction of the Krishnakátí and Khairabad rivers. Lat. 22° 32′ 45″ N., long. 90° 23′ 10″ E. In 1801 the headquarters were transferred to Barisál, their present seat, and Bákarganj is now in ruins.

Bákeswar, or **Kana.**—A small river of Bengal; rises in Bírbhúm District, and, with its tributary the Kopái or Kopá or Sál Nadí, drains the country between the Ajai and the Mor or Maureksha, joining the latter river in Murshidabad District. Course, easterly. Springs impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen are found in the bed of the stream, with hot and cold jets within a few feet of each other, about 8 miles west of Suri. One mile south of Tantifsárá village a group of hot sulphur springs (named Bhúm Bákeswar) attracts an annual concourse of pilgrims, whose piety has erected a little temple city of more than 300 brick shrines to Mahádeo on the river bank.

Bakhar.—Fortified island in the Indus, Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* BUKKUR.

Bakhrá.—Village in Muzaffarpur, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 3372, comprising 2746 Hindus and 626 Muhammadans. Residence of a family of influential landholders, said to be descendants of the *sadr kanúngos* of Behar. Bakhrá is a police outpost, and has a saltpetre store, distillery, two schools, and some temples. Distance from Muzaffarpur, 22 miles.

Bakhshí Khál.—Water channel in Húglí District, Bengal, and the principal tributary of the Rúpnáráyan river in that District. It drains the central marsh lying between the Dámodar and the Rúpnáráyan.

Bakhtgarh.—Petty State in the Bheel Agency, under the Central Indian Agency. The chief, Pratáp Sinha, is (1878) a minor, adopted by the widow of the late chief, with the consent of the Dhar Durbar. In accordance with the wish of the late Thákur, the estate is managed under the supervision of the Bheel Agent. A payment of Hali rupees 16,502 is annually made to the Dhar State, under a settlement dating back to 1818. The State comprises 35 villages, 3 of which are *inám;* revenue in 1875, £6695.

Bakhtiárpur.—Village and station on the East Indian Railway, in Patná District, Bengal; nearest station for Behar or Nawádá. Lat. 25° 27′ 30″ N., long. 85° 34′ E. Distance from Calcutta, 310 miles.

Bakkacherla.—Village in Bellary District, Madras. The site of an

important water project in connection with the Tungabhadra irrigation system. This project consists of anicuts across the Pennár and Badrapúrnala rivers; a canal 18 miles in length and 52 yards broad, to feed the Anantapúr, Singenamalla, Kondapúr, and Perúr tanks; and a great reservoir in the place of the present Bakkacherla tank, anticipated to cost £135,150, and to irrigate about 11,000 acres of land now lying waste, but which would then yield in land revenue £6400 per annum.

Bakkarayasamudaram.—Village in Bellary District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 2295. Though small it pays a revenue of £801; situated 2 miles from Anantapur, where the principal *ryots* of the village live. It is built immediately under the tank dam, and the streets are therefore usually under water; fever and cholera are almost endemic. The village was founded in 1364 on one end of the *bund* of which Anantasagaram (Anantapur) formed the other.—*See* ANANTASAGARAM.

Bakrá River.—A small and rapid stream of North Behar. Rises in the Murang, or lower Himalayan range, and flowing in a southerly direction, joins the Panár at Rámpur, 5 miles north of Aráriyá, in Purniah District, Bengal. A good deal of timber is brought down the stream from Nepál.

Baksar.—Village in Unao District, Oudh, on the left bank of the Ganges, 32 miles south-east of Unao town. The first seat of the Bais clan, conquered by Rájá Abhái Chand. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 1210, and Muhammadans, 12—total, 1222. Great annual fair in Kártik, when 100,000 people assemble to bathe in the Ganges, which is held to be particularly sacred at this place. This little village has acquired a modern interest from its connection with the Cawnpore massacre of July 1857. A single boat-load of fugitives had managed to escape from the scene of butchery on the river at Cawnpore; but after two days' pursuit by the mutineers, who lined both banks, and the slaughter of the majority of its occupants, it ran upon a sandbank near Baksar. The fire of the enemy prevented the boat being got afloat again, and 14 of its occupants landed to attempt to drive them off. Major De la Fosse, one of the survivors, thus tells the story:—'Directly we got on shore the insurgents retired; but having followed them up too far, we were cut off from the river, and had ourselves to retire as we were being surrounded. We could not make for the river, but had to go down parallel, and came at the river again a mile lower down, where we saw a large force of men right in front waiting for us, and another lot on the other bank, should we attempt to cross the river. On the bank of the river, just by the force in front, was a temple. We fired a volley and made for the temple, in which we took shelter, one man being killed and one wounded. From

the door of the temple we fired on every insurgent who showed himself. Finding they could do nothing against us while we remained inside, they heaped wood all round and set it on fire. When we could no longer remain inside, on account of the smoke and heat, we threw off the clothes we had, and, each taking a musket, charged through the fire. Seven of us out of twelve got into the water; but before we had gone far two poor fellows were shot. There were only five left now, and we had to swim, while the insurgents followed us along both banks, wading, and firing as fast as they could. After we had gone about 3 miles down the stream, one of our party, an artilleryman, to rest himself, began swimming on his back, and not knowing in what direction he was swimming, got on shore, and was killed. When we had gone down about 6 miles, firing on both sides ceased; and soon after we were hailed by some natives on the Oudh side, who asked us to come on shore, and said that they would take us to their Rájá, who was friendly to the English. We gave ourselves up, and were taken 6 miles inland to the Rájá, who treated us very kindly, giving us clothes and food.' Besides Major De la Fosse, the others who escaped were Captain Mowbray Thomson and two privates, who formed the sole survivors of the Cawnpore massacre. The boat from which the party had landed was overtaken by the mutineers, and the remaining occupants conveyed back to Cawnpore, where they were slaughtered by order of the Náná.

Bákud Creek.—A short, deep branch of the Mahánadí river, in Cuttack District, Bengal. It is the more southerly of the two channels leading inland from the anchorage at FALSE POINT, and it is also the more direct of the two for navigation. A bar, about 1000 yards long, lies across the mouth, and is dry during the last quarter of the ebb. At full tide, however, cargo-boats and steamers enter easily. Beyond the bar a channel of 2 feet is obtained, gradually deepening to 8, then shoaling again to 2, and eventually deepening into an excellent channel of 14 to 20 feet up to its junction with the Mahánadí, a distance of about 16 miles. In this creek Government established its rice depôt for throwing supplies into Orissa during the famine of 1866.

Báláganj. — Village in Sylhet District, Assam, on the Lower Barák or Kusiyára river, with a large river-borne trade in rice, jute, oil-seeds, and *sitalpáti* mats. Lat. 24° 39′ 15″ N., long. 91° 52′ 15″ E. In 1876-77 the registered exports into Bengal included 137,800 *maunds* of rice, 7000 of paddy, and 3400 of jute; the imports included £18,300 of piece-goods, and 17,340 *maunds* of salt.

Bálághát (*'Above the Gháts'*).—Name given to certain Districts of the old Vijayanagar kingdom of the Carnatic, to distinguish them from the Carnatic *payanghát*, the Districts 'below the *gháts*,' now called 'The Carnatic.' Lat. 8° 10′ to 16° N., long. 77° 20′ to 80° 10′ E. The Districts

of Bellary, Kurnool, and Cuddapah are still locally known as the Bálághát.

Bálághát.—The upland country of Berar (in contradistinction to the *payanghát* or lowland tracts) above the Ajanta ridge, sloping southwards beyond the *ghâts* or passes which lead up to it. Lakenwadi *ghát*, the gateway to the Bálághát, is in lat. 20° 29′ N., and long. 76° 37′ E.

Bálághát.—A British District in the Chief-Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 18′ and 22° 22′ N. lat., and 80° 3′ 30″ and 81° 4′ E. long. Forms an irregular triangle, with its northern base resting on Mandlá District, its western side bounded by the Bágh and Wainganga rivers, and its south-eastern by Raipur District. Population in 1872, 195,008; area, 2608 square miles. The administrative headquarters are at BURHA.

Physical Aspects.—From the river Bágh, Lower Bálághát spreads in an open and fertile plain, fringed on its northern side with micaceous hill peaks and ridges, amid which a number of small valleys communicate with the highlands beyond. Higher up, the country is broken by a series of irregular mountain ranges, often sparkling with mica, and running generally towards the west. Numerous valleys wind among the hills, which attain a height of 800 or 900 feet above the plain, and nearly 2000 feet above sea level. The soil varies from rich alluvial deposits to a strong clay not susceptible of cultivation. The greater part of the District is drained by the Wainganga and its tributaries, but a few of the streams which rise in the upper country find their way into the Nerbudda (Narbadá). There are no lakes in Bálághát, but the undulating surface and the perennial hill streams afford great facilities for irrigation. This is effected by numberless tanks, which in many cases are emptied after the rains, and *rabí* crops are sown in their beds. The highlands are clothed with dense forest, and patches of scrub are scattered about the plains. On the banks of the Deo and the Son (Soane) is found the large *katang* bamboo, specimens of which have been exhibited 90 feet in length. The north of Bálághát is covered with forests; the finest of these is the large *sál* reserve of Toplá, in the north-east corner, where the trees are magnificent. The jungle is tenanted by game of every kind, from the bison, which ranges the hill summits, to the fox and hare in the plains below.

History.—The early history of the lowlands before the Marhattá invasion is uncertain, but more than a century ago they were absorbed by the Bhonslá rulers of Nágpur. The upper country was held by the Garhá Mandlá kings until their subjugation by the Marhattás. The Buddhist temples of cut stone would seem to indicate a comparatively high civilisation at some remote period; but whatever prosperity now exists in the highlands has been created within the memory of man. Seventy years ago a primeval wilderness reigned throughout these regions; and

it is owing to the enterprise of Lachhman Naík, and of the immigrants whom he introduced about 1810, that Paraswára and the 30 neighbouring villages are now flourishing settlements, surrounded by excellent rice fields, which never lack water even in the driest season. It is the aim of the English administration to foster such endeavours to people the waste; and the records of this process are likely for some time to form the history of Bálághát.

Population.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 195,008 persons, and an area of 2608 square miles. After recent changes, the returns of 1877 give a total of 302,482 persons, on an area of 3141 square miles, residing in 1028 villages. The Census of 1872, however, still remains the only basis for a detailed examination of the population. It showed 195,008 persons on an area of 2608 square miles, occupying 781 villages and 37,192 houses: persons per square mile, 74·77; villages per square mile, 0·30; houses per square mile, 14·26; persons per village, 249·69; persons per house, 5·24. Classified according to sex—males, 96,636; females, 98,372. In 1877, an estimate based on the Census of 1872 gave the following details:—Male children, 43,930; female children, 41,790. Ethnical division—Europeans, 4; Eurasians, 3; aboriginal tribes, 62,238; Hindus, 137,867; Muhammadans, 3083; Buddhists and Jains, 41; and 1714 'others.' The most numerous tribe of aborigines is the Gonds, 57,799 in 1872, the remainder consisting of Kurkus, Baigas, etc. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans number 1402. The mass of the Hindu population consists of Lodhís, 12,089; Ponwárs, 13,906; Malis, 24,227; Gowaris, 11,236. There are 4 native Christians.

Division into Town and Country.—In 1872, only 4 towns had a population of more than 2000, and only 6 from 1000 to 2000; townships from 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 346; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 425.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3141 square miles, only 521 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 653 are returned as cultivable; 10,287 acres, or about 16 square miles, are irrigated entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 11d. per acre on the cultivated land, or 5d. on the cultivable land. The only important crop is rice; the average rent per acre of land suited for rice is 1s. 4d.; the average produce per acre 300 lbs. The price averages 4s. 10d. per cwt. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 1381 proprietors, of whom 420 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered over 20,000, of whom about 4400 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 16,407 were tenants-at-will. Average wages per diem—skilled labour, 9d.; unskilled, 3d. Of the agricultural classes the most numerous are the Lodhís and Ponwárs. Both are esteemed to be good cultivators, though the latter have merely a local reputation, while the former are well known

throughout northern and central India. From the immigration of sturdy peasants of these classes the reclamation of the forest wastes may be hoped for; and it was with the main object of facilitating their settlement in Bálághát that the District was at first experimentally formed. For the last ten years, every effort has been made to induce industrious husbandmen to reclaim lands in the upland tracts. Where the plot applied for has been entirely waste, grants have been made under the waste-land clearance lease rules. Where a few squatters have already settled, active men are encouraged to undertake the management of the village, by the prospect of obtaining the proprietary right on their getting the village inhabited and the lands around brought under cultivation. In the year 1876, sales or grants were made of 7716 acres of cultivable waste.

Commerce and Trade.—The trading classes chiefly consist of oil-sellers and spirit-distillers, who, however, combine other trades, and even agriculture, with their hereditary vocations. The artisan class as yet scarcely exists. Gold is washed in a few of the streams, especially the Deo and the Son (Soane), but the quantity obtained hardly repays the labour. In many places on the hills iron abounds. The Gonds smelt the ore into rough semicircular shapes of about 10 lbs. weight, called *chúlás*, which are sold in the *bázárs* for from 6d. to 1s. a piece. The mica is too fragmentary to be of much value. What little internal trade there is in Bálághát is carried on with the villages of the Wainganga plain. There the inhabitants of the uplands find a market for their produce, and thence they obtain their salt, their copper vessels, their cotton goods, and their hardware. The greatest obstacle to the prosperity of the District arises from the difficulty of communication. Only within the last few years has much progress been made in this respect. During that period the Panchéra, the Warái, the Bánpur, and the Bhondwá Hill Tracks have been rendered available for carts; but in 1877 the length of made roads was returned at only 42 miles, entirely of the 3d class. There is no railway in the District. Communication by water is carried on by means of the Bágh, the Deo, the Son, and the Wainganga rivers, on which, during the flood season, a good deal of grain goes down, and some salt comes up in flat-bottomed boats. But the navigation of these streams is much impeded by the rocky barriers which occur in different parts of their course, in the removal of which, however, some progress has been made. The District has 5 dispensaries, viz. the Bálághát main dispensary, with branches at Wárá Seoní, Hatti, Behir, and Katangí. There is also a District jail.

Administration.—In 1867, Bálághát was, as a temporary measure in the first instance, formed into a separate District under the Government of the Central Provinces, and attached to the Nágpur Division. It is administered by a Deputy-Commissioner, with assistants and *tahsíldárs.*

In 1876-77, the total revenue amounted to £26,882, of which the land revenue yielded £16,021; total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £8356; number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 6; magistrates, 6; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 65 miles; average distance, 30; number of police, 230, costing £3512, 10s., being 1 policemen to about every 13 square miles and to every 1315 persons. The daily average number of prisoners in jail in 1876 was 40, of whom 5 were females. The cost of maintaining and guarding the prisoners in that year was £284. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 34, attended by 1943 pupils. There is no municipality in the District.

Medical Aspects.—The rainy season lasts from June to September. In 1872, the rainfall at the civil station amounted to 72·71 inches; in 1876 it was 56·20 inches. Temperature in the shade in 1876—May, highest reading 115°, lowest 75°; July, highest reading 104°, lowest 70°; December, highest reading 83°, lowest 43°. By far the most fatal complaint is fever, to which cause is attributed about 85 per cent. of the deaths throughout the District. Cholera and small-pox have been comparatively harmless, but dysentery and similar bowel complaints are responsible for a considerable number of deaths. In 1876 the death-rate per 1000 of the population was returned at 27·57.

Bálahera.—Village with fort in Jeypore (Jaipur) State, Rájputána; on the route from Agra to Ajmere, 78 miles west of former, 150 east of latter. Lat. 26° 57′ N., long. 76° 47′ E. Situated close to a pass through a chain of rocky hills running north and south. The fort was bombarded and partly destroyed by De Boigne, Sindhia's general, in the end of last century.

Balahi.—Hill range in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; 6 miles west of Bhandára, rising 400 feet above the plain. Lat. 21° 10′ 30″ to 21° 13′ N., long. 79° 35′ 30″ to 79° 38′ 15″ E.; area about 24 miles in circumference. Its shale and laterite are used for building.

Bálakot.—Town in Hazára District, Punjab; situated on left bank of the river Kimbar, 20 miles in a straight line from the junction with the Jhelum (Jhílam). Pop. (1868), 10,683 persons. A few Kshattriyas of this place, in conjunction with those of Nowshera (Naushahra), have a considerable trade. Imports, salt and cloth; chief export, butter. Of the agricultural population, belonging to the Swáti and Gújar tribes, a majority inhabit the central village; the remainder, included in the above figures, are scattered in isolated hamlets over the extensive lands of the township.

Bálákot.—Fortified village in the hilly region of Damoh District, Central Provinces; 12 miles south-west of Damoh. Lat. 23° 41′ 45″ N.,

long. 79° 22′ 45″ E. The inhabitants are Lodhís, and rebelled in 1857, when the fort was dismantled by British troops. Police post.

Bálamau.—*Parganá* in Sandíla *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Gopamau, on the east and south by Sandíla, and on the west by Bangar and Mallánwán *parganás*, the Sai river marking the boundary line. The *parganá* is said to have been formed towards the end of Akbar's reign by one Balái Kúrmi, who, flying from the oppression of the Chandels some 300 years ago, found an asylum with the Kachhwáha Kshattriyas of Marhi. Being settled by them in the neighbouring forest, he cleared and peopled it, and founded the village of Balái Khera, now Bálamau. Another tradition states that Balái Kúrmi received the jungle tract from the Kachháwád as a reward for his assistance in beating off a Musalmán raid. A small and fertile *parganá*, with an area of 25 square miles, of which 18 are cultivated. Principal crops, wheat, barley, and gram. Land revenue, £2048, at the rate of 3s. 6¾d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 7⅝d. per acre of total area. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 10,329; Muhammadans, 870; total, 11,199, viz. 5899 males and 5300 females; 14 villages; average density of population, 446 per square mile. Of the 14 villages, 8 are held by Kachhwáha Kshattriyas, 2 by Nikhumbhs, 2 by Sukul Bráhmans, and 1 each by Káyasths and Kashmiri Bráhmans.

Bálamau.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 14 miles north-west of Sandíla. Pop. (1869), 2376, principally agricultural Kúrmís; 518 houses. A thriving place, with daily market and Government school.

Bálapur.—Town in Akola District, Berar. Lat. 20° 40′ N., long. 76° 49′ 15″ E.; 16 miles west of Akola town, and 6 miles south of Páras station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; pop. 12,631, including many Guzerati Bráhmans. The Mun river divides Bálapur proper from the *petta* (suburbs). One of the largest fairs in Berar was formerly held here in honour of the goddess Bálá, whose temple still remains, and who gives her name to the town. Bálapur is mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari* as one of the richest *parganás* of Berar. Azím Sháh, son of Aurangzeb, is said to have resided here, and to have built a fort of earthwork. Nizam-ul-Mulk defeated (July 1721) the imperial forces close to the town, after a severe engagement, in which his famous Deccan artillery decided the day. The present fort of Bálapur is the largest and probably the strongest in Berar, the hill forts of Melghát excepted. An inscription on the front gate states that it was completed in 1757 by Ismáil Khán, first Nawáb of Ellichpur. The Jamá Masjíd, a fine building, bears date 1032 A.H. A *chhatri* (umbrella-shaped pavilion) of black stone, 25 feet square and 38 feet high, on the bank of the river, south of the town, is much admired. It is supposed to have been built by Sarái Jái Sinh Rájá, who accompanied Alamgír to the Deccan (Dakshin). A good market on Saturdays;

the woven manufactures, formerly in high repute, are now but little sought after. A large proportion of the inhabitants are Musalmáns.

Bálásan.—A river of Dárjíling District, Bengal; rises at Jagat Lepchá, a few miles south-west of Dárjíling, and flows south until it enters the *tarái*, where it divides into two streams. One, called the New Bálásan, branches off and joins the Mahánandá on its right bank just below Siligurí; the other, the Old Bálásan, continues its southward course till it passes out of the *tarái* into Purniah District. The Bálásan is fordable at several places during the cold and dry weather, and even in the rainy season after flood water has subsided. In the hills the banks of the river are covered with jungle, but in the *tarái* they are cultivated.

Bálásinor (*Vádásinor*, or *Wárásinor*).—A tributary State within the Political Agency of Rewá Kánta, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 53′ and 23° 17′ N. lat., and between 73° 17′ and 73° 40′ E. long.; bounded on the north by the States of the Mahi Kánta, on the east by the river Mahi, Lunáwára, and part of the Godrá Subdivision of the Panch Mahále, and on the west and south by Kaira District. The territory is about 30 miles in length and 10 or 12 in breadth; estimated area, 150 square miles; pop. (1872), 41,984; estimated gross revenue, £8000. Except some hilly tracts in the north, the surface is flat. The soil is fertile and the climate tolerably healthy. There are no rivers of any note except the Mahi; irrigation is conducted from wells. Products—cereals and cotton. Routes from Guzerat to Malwa pass through the State. There are 3 schools, with 413 pupils. The present (1875) chief, a Musalmán of 55 years of age, is named Joráwar Khán. The distinguishing title of the family is Bábí, meaning 'doorkeeper,' that having been the office assigned to the first ancestor, who attained distinction at the Mughal court. The chief has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without requiring the sanction of the Political Agent. He pays a tribute of £400 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1468 to the British Government. He maintains a military force of 219 men, and is entitled to a salute of nine guns. Succession follows the rule of primogeniture; there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The family traces its origin to Sher Khán Bábí, a distinguished officer in the imperial service (A.D. 1664); the fifth in descent, Salábat Khán, was granted the revenues and jurisdiction of Bálásinor and Virpur. Bahádur Khán, the fourth in descent from Salábat Khán, obtained possession of the principality of Junágarh in Káthiáwár; on his death his territory was divided, the younger son receiving Junágarh, and the elder son continuing to hold Bálásinor. During the ascendancy of the Marhattás in Guzerat, the State became tributary to both the Peshwá (1768) and the Gáekwár; and in 1818, when the British Government succeeded to the

rights of the Peshwá, it assumed the political superintendence of Bálásinor. Placed at first under the supervision of the Collector of Kairá, Bálásinor has since the year 1853 formed part of the territory controlled by the Political Agent of Rewá Kánta.

Bálásinor.—Chief town in the State of the same name, in Guzerat, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency, near the Sheri river, on the route from Neemuch (Nímach) to Baroda. Lat. 23° N., long. 73° 24′ E.; pop. (1872), 8836.

Balasor.—A District in Orissa, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 20° 43′ 50″ and 21° 56′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 18′ 40″ and 87° 31′ 20″ E. long.; area, 2068 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 770,232 souls. It is bounded on the north by Midnapur District and the Tributary State of Morbhanj; on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by Cuttack District, the Baitaraní river forming the boundary line; and on the west by the tributary States of Keunjhar, Nílgirí, and Morbhanj. The Administrative Headquarters are at Balasor town, on the Burábalang river. Balasor derives its name from Bal-eswara, 'The Young Lord,' or 'Lord of Strength,' *i.e.* Krishna; or perhaps from Ban-eswara, 'The Forest Lord,' *i.e.* Mahádevá.

Physical Aspects.—Balasor District consists of a strip of alluvial land, lying between the hills which rise from the western boundary and the sea on the east. This strip varies in breadth from about 9 to 34 miles, and is divided into three well-defined tracts—the Salt Tract, nearest the coast; the Arable Tract, which constitutes the largest part of the District; and the Submontane or Jungle Tract. The Salt Tract extends along the coast, forming a desolate sandy strip some miles broad, traversed by sluggish streams of brackish water, and clothed here and there with such scrubby vegetation as the arid soil will support. Near the sea, the land rises into ridges from 50 to 80 feet high, and the western portion of the tract is covered with coarse long grass, which harbours large numbers of wild animals. The Arable Tract, which adjoins this sandy strip, is a long dead level of rice-fields; the soil is lighter in colour and more friable than that of Bengal generally. There is no forest throughout this tract, and the only trees are those which cluster round the villages, with a few scattered clumps of palms and screw-pines. The Submontane Tract is undulating, with a red soil, and is broken up into ravines along the base of the hills. Masses of laterite, buried in hard ferruginous clay, appear above the surface as rocks or slabs. At Kopári, in *kilá* Ambohatá, about two square miles are almost paved with such slabs, dark red in colour, perfectly flat, and polished like plates of iron. A thousand mountain torrents have scooped out for themselves picturesque ravines, clothed with an ever fresh verdure of prickly thorns,

stunted, gnarled shrubs, and here and there a noble forest tree. Large tracts are covered with *sál* jungle, which nowhere, however, attains to any great height. Balasor is watered by five principal rivers—the SUBARNAREKHA (*'Streak of Gold'*), the PANCHPARA, the BURABALANG (*'Old Twister'*), the KANSBANS, and the BAITARANI (the Styx of Hindu mythology). The Subarnarekhá is navigable by country craft as far as Kálikápur, 16 miles from its mouth. The Pánchpárá is formed by the junction of an intricate network of small streams, of which the most noteworthy are the Jamirá, the Báns, and the Bhairingí. The Burábalang is navigable by brigs, sloops, and sea-going steamers as far as the town of Balasor, about 16 miles up its tortuous course; but the entrance to the river is difficult owing to the sandbar across its mouth. The Kánsbáns is only navigable for a few miles, and is notorious in the District for its sudden floods and the large extent of country which it submerges in the rainy weather. The Baitaraní, which forms the boundary-line between Balasor and Cuttack, joins the Dhámrá 5 miles from its mouth. The Baitaraní receives on its Balasor side two tributaries, the Sálandí (or, more properly, Sálnadí) and the Mataí. Reference has been made to the sandbar at the mouth of the Burábalang; similar obstructions block the entrances to the other Balasor rivers, seriously interfering with, or entirely preventing, navigation. The question of devising means for the removal of these bars and the prevention of their re-formation, has engaged the anxious consideration of Government; but the problem has not yet been solved.

Ports and Harbours.—There are seven principal ports in Balasor District, the names of which, beginning from the north, are:—SUBARNAREKHA, SARATHA, CHHANUYA, BALASOR, LAICHANPUR, CHURAMAN, and DHAMRA. Subarnarekhá is situated on the river of the same name, and is distant about 12 miles from the mouth. It was at one time by far the most important harbour on the Orissa coast, and it possesses special interest as being probably the earliest maritime settlement of the English in Bengal. That settlement was founded in 1634 on the ruins of the Portuguese factory at PIPPLI. Its exact position is no longer known, but it is supposed to have been about 4 miles farther up the river than the present port. In the early part of the last century, the settlement was already in a state of ruin and decay, on account of the silting up of the river mouth. Owing to changes in the course of the stream, no stone remains to mark the spot where the famous port once stood. In the days of its prosperity, ships sailed from the sea right up to the harbour; now the sandy bar at the entrance of the river is all but bare at low water, and in the south-west monsoon the port is quite unsafe, presenting an exposed lee shore with breakers right across its mouth. Beyond the bar, the river is deep and clear. The place is at present frequented chiefly by fishing boats, which cruise

along the coast in fine weather as far as Purí. Concurrently with the gradual decay of Subarnarekhá, Churáman seems to have risen in importance, and in 1809 the Balasor Collector of Customs described it as 'the most safe and convenient port on the coast of Orissa,' and stated that it 'carries on a sea-going trade exceeding that of Balasor.' Since then this port and Laichanpur, which is 5 miles north of it, have both succumbed to the common enemy—silt; and the mouths of the *nálás* on which they are situated are so nearly closed, that 'to steer a small jolly-boat into them and out again to sea requires careful watching of the tides.' These *nálás* are branches of the same river, the Kánsbáns, which bifurcates at a point 7 miles, in a straight line, from the coast. Laichanpur is on the northern of these branches, which keeps the name of Kánsbáns; while Churáman lies on the southern branch, called the Gammaí. Sárathá and Chhánuyá are similarly situated on two branches of the Pánchpárá, which bear the same names as the ports, and are navigable to points 8 or 9 miles from the sea in a direct line. Native rice sloops of as much as a hundred tons burthen can manage to get over the bar at high tide; and, once past that obstruction, there is no want of water. The banks are soft and muddy, and there is much difficulty in landing except at high water. The Dhámrá port, at the mouth of the river of the same name, is a good harbour, affording complete protection from the monsoon. It is visited by a considerable number of native vessels engaged in the Madras rice trade; but owing to its distance from any large commercial centre, it is of no great importance. The Dhámrá river discharges the united waters of the Mataí, Baitaraní, Bráhmaní, and Kharsuá rivers; and the port includes the navigable channels of all the streams so far up as they are affected by the tide. These limits embrace Chándbálí, Hansuá, and Patámundaí, the two last being in Cuttack District. Chándbálí is situated on a high and narrow ridge of sand on the banks of the Baitaraní river. It has gradually become a trading-place of considerable importance, the traffic being almost entirely by steamer with Calcutta. The principal port in the District at present is Balasor itself, which consists of the portion of the Burábalang river fronting the town of Balasor. It is about 7 miles from the coast in a direct line, but the course of the river is so tortuous that the distance by water is 15 miles. The navigation at the entrance is somewhat difficult, and there is the usual bar at the mouth, the depth in spring tides being only one foot, while high water gives a rise of thirteen feet. The port is frequented by sloops from the Madras coast and Ceylon; and the inhabitants of the Laccadive and Maldive islands also depend principally on this District for their supply of grain. In 1874-75, the value of the imports was £61,736; that of the exports, £55,098. The sloops used along the coast for local traffic are built

at Balasor, but the number of vessels belonging to the port has diminished since Government abandoned the manufacture and export of salt. A detailed description of the Balasor ports will be found in an article in the *Statistical Reporter* for April 1876 (quoted very fully in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xviii. pp. 252–262), from which the above information is mainly derived.

History.—Balasor was acquired with the rest of Orissa in 1803, since which year there have been many perplexing changes of jurisdiction. The first British officer in charge of the District, Captain Morgan, exercised authority between the coast and the Hill States, but all the *parganás* north of Nángaleswar and Sátmalang were included within Midnapur, and the limits to the south seem to have been very ill defined. In 1804, a Collector was appointed, with jurisdiction as far south as the Bráhmaní river. From 1805 to 1821, Balasor was managed from Cuttack, and had no separate revenue officer; in 1821, the District was administered by a joint-magistrate as the deputy of the Cuttack Collector; and in 1827, it was made an independent Collectorate. But the interest of the British in the District dates from a much earlier period. Balasor town was one of the first English settlements in Eastern India. The story of its acquisition is romantic. In 1636, Mr. Gabriel Broughton, surgeon of the ship *Hopewell*, cured the Emperor's daughter, whose clothes had caught fire, and in 1640 he successfully treated one of the ladies of the Bengal Viceroy's *zanáná*. When asked to name his own reward, he replied that he wished nothing for himself, but begged that his countrymen might be allowed a maritime settlement in Bengal. Accordingly, in 1642, imperial commissions were made out granting the East India Company a land factory at Húglí, and a maritime settlement at Balasor. It has been stated on p. 325 that a few years previous to this (in 1634) the first English factory had been established at Pipplí, on the Subarnarekhá; but owing to the silting up of that river, it was found necessary to transfer the Pipplí factory to Balasor. The latter place was at once fortified, and became in reality the key to the position which England has since gained in India. During the long struggle between the Afgháns and the Mughals, and subsequently between the Mughals and the Marhattás for supremacy in Orissa, the English steadily kept the footing they had obtained. Defended on one side by the river, and on all others by a precipitous channel, which had been deepened so as to form a moat, and further protected by the guns on its ramparts and the armed merchantmen in the roads, Balasor was safe from attack, and soon became known as the only quiet retreat in the District for peaceful people. Industry and commerce gathered round it, and manufacturing hamlets and colonies of weavers nestled beneath the shadow of its fortified walls. Very different was the position at Húglí, where the English traders were

subjected to every possible annoyance and exaction at the hands of the Mughal governors. In 1685, our countrymen were forced into open warfare; and in 1688, Captain Heath of the *Resolution*, the commander of the Company's forces, who had in vain negotiated for a fortified factory on the present site of Calcutta, could no longer tolerate the state of affairs, and, embarking all the Company's servants and goods, sailed down the Húglí and entered Balasor roads. About 1700, the mouth of the Burábalang river was beginning to be blocked with silt; and during last century the river and sea threw up several miles of new land, leaving Balasor much farther inland than it was before. This silting up of the river mouth, of course, seriously injured the port; and the last blow was struck at its prosperity when, in 1832, the Government abandoned the monopoly of the salt manufacture and trade. Meanwhile the English were firmly establishing themselves at Calcutta, and the commerce of Balasor and its importance were gradually transferred to that place.

Population.—The population of the District, according to the Census of 1872, is 770,232 persons, dwelling in 3266 villages and 138,913 houses, the average pressure of the population on the soil being 373 persons per square mile. In religion, the great bulk of the population (96 per cent.) are Hindus; the Muhammadans constitute only 2·6 per cent.; and the total number of Christians is 530, of whom 448 are native converts. The remainder of the population (1·6 per cent.) consists of various aboriginal tribes, who still retain their ancient forms of faith. The chief aboriginal tribes in Balasor are the Bhumijs, of whom there are 1675, and the Santáls, who number 1176. Among the semi-Hinduized aborigines the most numerous tribes are the Páns, of whom there are 36,546; the Kandárás, numbering 18,485; and the Chámárs, or dealers in leather, 4383. The number of persons of high caste is returned at 244,200, including 101,509 Bráhmans and 135,671 Khandáits or Khandáyats. The Khandáits, who are by far the most numerous caste in the District, are descended from the soldiers of the ancient Rájás of Orissa, who kept up large armies, and partitioned the land on strictly military tenures. These soldiers were of various castes and races, the officers being of good descent, while the lower ranks were filled by men of humble origin. On the establishment of a caste system they all took rank with the military castes, but the present Khandáits are for the most part hardly to be distinguished from ordinary agriculturists. The number of persons in Balasor belonging to pastoral and agricultural castes is 150,590; belonging to artisan castes there are 118,684, including 45,078 weavers. There are 21,949 Hindus who do not recognise caste; the great majority of these (18,651) are Vaishnavs. The population of the District is almost entirely rural; the only town containing more than 5000 inhabitants being Balasor

itself, with a population of 18,263. Four towns are returned as containing from 2000 to 3000 inhabitants, and the total number of villages is 3261, of which 2043 have a population of less than 200. The port of Balasor has already been described, and the history of its rise and decline given. The only other towns in the District worthy of mention are Bhadrakh, on the high road between Calcutta and Cuttack; Jaleswar, or Jellasor, on the Subarnarekhá, formerly one of the Company's factory stations; and Soro, on the Calcutta high road, about midway between Balasor and Bhadrakh.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop in Balasor, as throughout the rest of Orissa; indeed, it may almost be called the only crop of the District, as it has been estimated that but one acre in a thousand of the cultivated area is sown with any other crop. The principal rice crop is sown in May and June; the reaping seasons vary for different varieties, the crops sown on high lands being reaped in July, August, and September; those sown on middling lands, in September and October; and the variety (*guru*) sown on low lands, in December and January. The coarse varieties of the grain are the most easily cultivated, but of late years the finer sorts have been more extensively grown than formerly. Manure, consisting of cow dung, ashes, tank mud, etc., is used at least once in five years, 10 cwts. being allowed for an acre of rice land. Rents vary according to the situation of the land (and its liability to heavy floods) and to the tenure on which it is held; the average rate for *pal* land, which produces the finer kinds of rice, and also bears a second crop, is 6s. Such land yields from 12 cwts. to 15 cwts. of coarse paddy, or from 11 to 13½ cwts. of fine paddy, the average value of which may be taken as £1; the out-turn of the second crop may be valued at from 12s. to 16s. an acre. Nearly one-half of the District is cultivated, and the remaining portion is almost all incapable of tillage. Wages, and with them prices, have much increased in Balasor of late years. The wage of a day-labourer, which was in 1850 1½d., and had in 1860 risen to 3d., is now 3¾d.; and a similar rise has taken place in the wages of skilled workmen. The price of common rice in 1850 was 1s. 10½d. per cwt.; in 1860 it had risen to 2s. 3d. per cwt., and in 1870 to 3s. 2d. Since 1870, the price has still further increased. Owing to the extraordinary manner in which estates in Balasor are cut up, the condition of the peasantry is not very satisfactory. A single estate generally consists of several villages or patches of land situated in different *parganás*, quite separate, and often at a considerable distance from each other. Endless confusion regarding boundaries is, of course, the result. Further, a landholder cannot supervise the whole of his estate, and it is impossible for him to take an intelligent interest in it, or to do justice to the cultivators, who on their part must be satisfied with very small holdings, unless they are willing to hold

under several proprietors, or to farm a number of scattered patches under the same landlord. Large farms are unknown; there are not in the whole District more than a hundred holdings of from 20 to 100 acres in extent, and about 60 per cent. are below 10 acres.

Natural Calamities.—The District suffers much from both flood and drought. The floods are due to the sudden rising of the rivers in the hills during the rainy season, and almost every year the waters of the Subarnarekhá and the Baitaraní devastate large tracts of country. Protective works have been undertaken by Government at great cost, but the floods are quite unmanageable while they last, and the embankments which have been built are altogether insufficient for their control. The principal embankments are the Bhográi and Salsá Pát, on the lower reaches of the Subarnarekhá. Droughts, due to deficient rainfall, occur from time to time, but fortunately the failure in the higher levels is often compensated by increased fertility in the plains. In years of flood, however, although the uplands are much benefited by the local rainfall, to which the floods are partly attributable, the extent of high land is so small that the increased fertility is by no means commensurate with the loss of crops in the low-lying tracts. Serious droughts occurred in the years 1836, 1839, 1840, and 1865. An account of the terrible famine of 1866 will be found in the article on ORISSA, and the reader who wishes to study the details of that calamity should consult the *Report of the Famine Commissioners* (folio, 2 vols., Calcutta, 1867). The number of paupers who died in the town of Balasor in the five months June to October was 8900. Situated as it is, at the north-west corner of the Bay of Bengal, Balasor is also much exposed to the cyclones which arise in the bay. These cyclones are generally accompanied by irresistible storm-waves, varying in height from 7 to 15 feet, which sometimes penetrate as far as 9 miles inland. Such calamities occurred in 1823, 1831, 1832, 1848, and 1851. In the severest of these, the cyclone of 1831, 26,000 persons were destroyed. Fortunately the two last cyclones (in 1872 and 1874) were not accompanied by storm-waves.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal manufacture of the District, and, indeed, the only one worthy of notice, is salt. The process is very simple and rude, consisting merely of evaporation in the roughest way. The manufacture is carried on in the saline tract adjoining the coast; cost of production, 2s. a cwt.; Government duty was 8s. 10d. a cwt. till 1877; since then, 7s. 6d. In 1875-76, the total manufactured was 7224 tons, yielding to Government a revenue of £48,351. The chief articles of import are European cotton goods and metals, and the principal export is rice, which in favourable seasons is sent out of the District in large quantities both by sea and by land. The value of the rice exported from Balasor by sea in 1873-74 was £130,480, and in 1874-75, £170,991. The principal trade is with Calcutta.

Administration.—The early records of the District have been destroyed, but so far as can now be ascertained, the separate expenditure in 1804 on the civil administration of Balasor, then a Subdivision of Cuttack, was £77, 18s. In 1870-71, the net revenue was £90,474, and the net civil expenditure, £32,414. The land revenue, which in 1830 amounted to £29,321, had in 1850 increased to £40,480, and in 1870-71 to £41,911. The extent to which the protection of person and property has improved since the beginning of the century will be seen from the following figures:—In 1804, there was 1 permanent officer and only 3 courts of all kinds in the District; in 1870-71 there were 11 courts and 3 civil officers. At the end of 1872, the total police force of Balasor consisted of 2918 officers and men, or 1 policeman to every 264 of the population. The estimated aggregate cost of maintaining this force was £11,849, equal to a charge of 3½d. per head of the population. In the same year, 1776 persons were tried, and 891 convicted, by the magistrate or sessions judge, being 1 person convicted of an offence of some kind to every 864 of the population. The average daily jail population during the same year was equal to 1 male prisoner to every 2461 of the male population, and 1 female prisoner to every 46,072 of the female population. Until within the last few years very little educational progress had been made. In 1856-57, there were in the District 2 Government and aided schools, with 99 pupils; in 1870-71, the number of schools had increased to 28, and of pupils to 1252. In 1875, there were 217 schools of all kinds in Balasor, attended by 5972 pupils. These figures show 1 school to every 9·5 square miles, and 7·7 pupils to every 1000 of the population.

Medical Aspects.—The hot season, which lasts from March to the middle of June, is tempered by a cool sea-breeze from the south-west; the rains, which follow the hot season, last until the end of September. The average temperature in May is 98° F., in April 96°, and in September and November 73°. The average annual rainfall is 67·30 inches. The most common endemic disease is *elephantiasis arabum*, which is said to be always present in from 15 to 20 per cent. of the people. Skin diseases are common throughout the District towards the end of the rains, and after they have ceased, remittent fever becomes prevalent. Cholera is the principal epidemic with which Balasor is afflicted, and the disease is doubtless often induced by the stream of pilgrims which annually flows along the trunk road. Very severe outbreaks occurred in 1853 and 1866.

Balasor.—The headquarters Subdivision of the District of the same name in Bengal, lying between 21° 3′ 30″ and 21° 56′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 23′ 45″ and 87° 31′ 20″ E. long.; pop. (1872), 422,666, comprising 399,779 Hindus (94·6 per cent. of the Subdivisional popu-

lation), 10,380 Muhammadans, 510 Christians, and 11,997 'others;' area, 1157 square miles; number of villages, 2072—of houses, 77,022; average density, 365 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·79—of houses per square mile, 67; number of persons per village, 204, and per house, 5·5. The Subdivision comprises the five police circles (*thánás*) of Balasor, Bastá, Jaleswar, Bálíapál, and Soro. In 1870-71 it contained 11 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 426 men, and a village watch of 1118 men.

Balasor.—Municipal town, chief port, and administrative headquarters of the District of the same name, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Burábalang river. Lat. 21° 30′ 6″ N., long. 86° 58′ 11″ E.: pop. (1872), 18,263, comprising 15,094 Hindus, 2586 Muhammadans, 432 Christians, and 151 'others;' number of males, 9029; females, 9234: municipal income (1871), £519; incidence of municipal taxation, 6¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. Value of imports (1874-75), £61,736; exports, £55,098. Among the articles of import are metals (used for the manufacture of domestic utensils and ornaments), piece-goods, cotton, twist, tobacco, gunny-bags, drugs, oil, sugar, seeds, etc. The chief export is rice. A description of the port, and an account of the rise and history of the town, will be found in the article on BALASOR DISTRICT.

Balasor (*Banasura*, 'The Buffalo's Hump').—An isolated peak, 6762 feet above the level of the sea, in a range of hills in Malabar District, Madras; situated 9½ miles south-west of Manantoddy. Lat. 11° 41′ 45″ N., long. 75° 57′ 15″ E. Except on the lower portions, which have been cleared by the Moplas for coffee cultivation, the peak is densely wooded.

Balbaridaluá.—Large marsh in Bákarganj District, Bengal, between 22° 39′ and 22° 52′ N. lat., and between 89° 58′ and 90° 12′ E. long.; with an estimated ordinary area of 39·45 square miles, but spreading over a much larger extent in the rains. Abounds in fish.

Balcha.—Pass in Garhwál State, Punjab, on the Bashahr frontier, lying over the crest of the ridge between the basins of the Tons and the Pábar. Densely covered with *deodár* forest. Elevation above the sea, 8898 feet. Lat. 31° 4′ N., long. 78° E.

Balcharí (*Bulcherry*).—Island in Lower Bengal, on the western side of the entrance to the Matlá river, which it separates from the Jámirá. Lat. 21° 31′ to 21° 35′ N., long. 88° 31′ to 88° 37′ E.

Báldiábárí.—Village in Purniah, Bengal; distant about a mile and a half from Nawábganj. Lat. 25° 21′ N., long. 87° 41′ E. The scene of a battle between Shankat Jang, Nawáb of Purniah, and Siráj-ud-Daulá (October 1756), in which the latter was completely victorious. Shankat Jang was killed by a ball while attempting to escape from the battlefield. The account of the engagement given in the *Sair-ul-Mutákharín*

is one of the best descriptions of a battle to be found in Muhammadan historians.

Baleswar River (*'Lord of Strength'*).—One of the principal distributaries of the Ganges; leaves the parent stream near Kushtiá in Nadiyá District, Bengal, where it is called the Garái. Thence flowing in a southerly direction, it soon assumes the name of Madhumati (*'Honey Flowing'*). It enters Bákarganj District near its north-west corner at Gopalganj, and from this point it takes the name of Baleswar, and forms the western boundary of the District, still flowing south, but with great windings in its upper reaches. It then crosses the Sundarbans, separating the Jessor from the Bákarganj portion of that tract, and enters the Bay of Bengal under the name of Haringhátá (*'Deer Ford'*), forming a fine deep estuary 9 miles broad. The river is navigable as high up as MORRELLGANJ in the District of Jessor by sea-going ships, and throughout its entire course by native boats of the largest tonnage. Although there is a bar at the mouth of the Haringhátá with only 17 feet of water at low tide, the navigation is easier than that of any other river at the head of the Bay of Bengal. The great banks or shoals which have formed at each side of the mouth, and which extend seaward for several miles, protect the entrance, and act as breakwaters to the swell. The river is not disturbed by the 'bore,' which visits the Húglí and the Meghná, and it is also free from mid-channel dangers. Among its chief tributaries are the Kachá in Bákarganj, and the Bankana *khál*, Nabaganga, and Máchuákhálí in Jessor.

Bálí.—Municipality on the Dhalkisor river, in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 48′ 50″ N., long. 87° 48′ 46″ E.; pop. (1872), 8819, comprising 8150 Hindus and 669 Muhammadans. Municipal revenue in 1871, £173, 4s.; average rate of municipal taxation, 4¾d. per head of the population within municipal limits.

Bálí.—Market village on the right bank of the Húglí river, in Húglí District, Bengal, and a station on the East Indian Railway, seven miles from Calcutta (Howrah). Lat. 22° 39′ N., long. 88° 23′ E.; area, 2294 acres; pop. (1869), 3544. Contains an academy for Hindu *pandits*. The village takes its name from a *khál*, or canal, 12 feet deep, running from here to the Dánkuní marsh west of Serampur station. A suspension bridge crosses the *khál* at Báli.

Báliághátá.—Trading village on the Circular Road Canal, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 33′ 45″ N., long. 88° 27′ E. Principal trade—fine rice imported from Bákarganj and the Eastern Districts, and firewood.

Báliághátá.—Canal in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, extending from the old to the new toll-house on the Salt Water Lake, 5½ miles in length.

Báliganj.—Suburb of Calcutta.—*See* BALLYGUNGE.

Bálighatiam.—Village in Vizagapatam District, Madras, near which is a shrine of Siva as Brahmeswarudu, of peculiar sanctity. Lat. 17° 39′ N., long. 82° 38′ 30″ E. The Swámí, or idol, contrary to usual custom, faces west instead of east. The river Pandéru or Varáhanadi, which washes the rock on which the temple stands, flows for some distance from south to north. This combination of directions is particularly auspicious in Hindu estimation, and the shrine, under the name of *Uttara Vahini*, is held in great veneration. On the river bank is a small bed of pulverized shale, which, from its resemblance to ashes, is declared by the priests to be the site of a sacrifice performed by Balichakravarti.

Balihrí.—One of the oldest towns in Jubbulpore (Jabalpur) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 47′ 45″ N., long. 80° 19′ E.; pop. (1872), 2028. Formerly called Bábávat Nagári, then Pápávat Nagarí, finally Balihrí, from the defeat here of a mythical Rájá Bal. Others connect the name with a variety of *pán* (Chavica betel); and even now the *pán* gardens are numerous and beautiful. In ancient times, Balihrí was a flourishing city, 24 miles in circumference. It lay on the main line of communication between the valleys of the Ganges and the Nerbudda (Narbadá), and contained hundreds of temples, to which pilgrims flocked from all parts of India. An inscription found in an old building shows that the town was an early seat of Jain worship. Balihrí, with the *parganá* of the same name, consisting of about 36 villages, probably belonged to the kings of Mandlá, till in 1781 they fell into the hands of the Marhattá chief of Saugor (Ságar). In 1796 Balihrí was presented to the Rájá of Nágpur; and in 1817 was ceded by the Bhonslás to the British Government. During the Mutiny of 1857 the fort was occupied by a party of rebels under Raghunáth Sinh, Bundelá; but they decamped on native troops being sent against the place. Soon afterwards the fort was entirely dismantled by order of Government. The present town is picturesquely situated among groves of mango and other trees, in a fertile country diversified by numerous hills. The large tank, fine old masonry wells, and many ancient remains are full of interest.

Bálípárá.—Forest reserve in the north-east of Darrang District, Assam. Lat. 26° 54′ to 26° 55′ N., long. 92° 51′ to 92° 52′ E.; estimated area, 44,800 acres, or 70 square miles.

Bálirangam.—Range of mountains in Coimbatore District, Madras, commencing in Mysore, and terminating at the Hassanúr Pass. Lat. 11° 40′ to 12° 10′ N., long. 77° 10′ to 77° 11′ E. The portion lying within the Madras Presidency consists of a double range; one part, running north and south from lat. 11° 40′ to lat. 12° 10′ N., averages about 4500 feet above sea level, the highest peaks being on the eastern ridge and rising to 5300 feet; Bedugiri, the southern peak, is 5000

feet high. The valley between the two ridges, which is heavily wooded and frequented by elephants, is watered by the Gundul and Honalli streams. The hills are uninhabited.

Balkh.—Province of Afghánistán.—*See* AFGHAN TURKISTAN.

Balkh.—City of Afghán Turkistán, Central Asia. Balkh properly lies beyond the scope of this work, but its interest as a seat of ancient civilisation induces me to condense the following description of it from Colonel Macgregor's official account:—

The City.—The famous and ancient city of Balkh has fallen to decay, and now consists of an old and new town. The ruins extend for a circuit of about 20 miles. They consist of fallen mosques and decayed tombs built of sun-dried brick, but there are no relics of an age prior to Muhammadanism. In its wide area the ancient city appears to have enclosed innumerable gardens, which increased its size without adding to its population; and from the frail materials of which its buildings are constructed, the foundations being only brick, it may be doubted if Balkh was ever a substantial city. There are three large colleges of handsome proportions now in a state of decay, with their cells empty; a mud wall surrounds a portion of the town, but it must be of recent construction, since it excludes the ruins on every side for about 10 miles. The citadel on the north side has been more solidly constructed. It is a square enclosure with a turret at each corner erected upon an artificial eminence; and this fortress, though entirely abandoned, is, as well as the mosques, colleges, and a long *bázár*, in very fine condition. Ancient Balkh stands on a plain about 6 miles from the hills, and not upon them as has been erroneously represented. There are many inequalities in the surrounding fields which may arise from ruins and rubbish. Forty years ago there still remained among the ruins many good houses; but when some of these fell down from the effects of rain, and exposed vases full of gold which had been concealed in the walls, the inhabitants of the south part proceeded to demolish everything that was left standing, in the hope of finding more treasure. In any case their trouble is not thrown away, for they sell the bricks to those who are building in the modern town. New Balkh is open, with the citadel in the centre, and lies an hour's journey north from the old town. It is the residence of the governor. The population consists of about 10,000 Afgháns and 5000 Uzbegs of the tribes of Kapchak and Sabu, with a few Hindus and about 1000 families of Jews. The former are shopkeepers, the latter shopkeepers and mechanics. Both are subject to the *jezia*, or capitation tax on infidels; the Hindus are known by a painted mark on the forehead, the Jews by wearing a black sheepskin cap. The population of the old town does not exceed 2000. The people of Central Asia have a great veneration for this city.

They call it Umm-ul-Baláď, 'mother of cities,' and believe that it was one of the earliest peopled portions of the earth, and that its re-occupation will be one of the signs of the approaching end of the world. Outside the city is the grave of poor Moorcroft, who lies close to his comrade Guthrie.

The Country.—Many well-peopled villages are included in the government of Balkh, which is bounded by the Oxus on the north, and on the south by the chain of mountains running east and west 15 miles from the town; in the other direction it extends from Bajar to Akcheh. The territory of Balkh is noted for its fertility; water is abundant, and it only requires a numerous population to render it the most fertile in Asia. Even in its present state it is one of the most productive tracts in Turkistán, being able to furnish several Provinces with grain when their own crops are insufficient for their consumption. The fruit of Balkh is most luscious, particularly the apricots, which are nearly as large as apples. They are almost below value. When Burnes was there, 2000 were to be purchased for a rupee; with iced water they are indeed luxuries, though dangerous ones. Snow is brought in quantities from the mountains south of Balkh, about 20 miles distant, and sold at a cheap rate throughout the year. The climate of Balkh is very insalubrious, but not disagreeable. In June the thermometer does not rise above 80°, but July is the hottest month in the year. The unhealthiness is ascribed to the water, which is so mixed up with earth and clay as to look like a puddle after rain. The soil is of a greyish colour, like pipeclay, and very rich. The crops are good; the wheat stalks grow as high as in England, and do not present the stunted stubble of India. The wheat ripens in July, which makes the harvest fifty days later than at Peshávar. In Balkh, the water has been distributed with great labour by aqueducts from the river; of these there are said to be no less than 18, but many are not now discoverable. They frequently overflow, and leave marshes, which rapidly dry up under the sun's rays. This seems to account for the diseases of the place, for it is not situated in a country naturally marshy, but on a gentle slope, about 1800 feet above the level of the sea, which sinks towards the Oxus. All the water of its river is lost long before reaching that stream.

History.—On the death of Nádir Sháh, Ahmad Sháh Durání gave the territories of Balkh to Hájí Khán, a soldier of fortune. His son succeeded him, but the inhabitants were encouraged to revolt by the Amír of Bokhára. Timur Sháh Durání then marched an army and reduced the place. After his death, Sháh Morád of Bokhára laid siege to the city in 1793, but did not take it. From 1793 to 1826 Balkh remained under Afghán government. Morád Beg of Kúndúz held temporary authority for two years from 1826, when, being dispossessed

by the Amír of Bokhára, he carried with him a large number of the inhabitants to people his territories to the east. Balkh was then placed under the government of a deputy of Bokhára named Eshán Khója; about 1838 he was recalled, but Balkh still remained under Bokhára till 1841, when the Mír Walí of Khúlm captured Balkh in the name of Sháh Shúja. At the desire of the British Resident he restored it. From this time to 1st February 1850, it is not clear under whose authority Balkh was, but it is probable that neither the Amír of Bokhára nor the Walí of Khúlm did more than claim sovereignty over it, and the city was constantly threatened by both. In February 1850, Muhammad Akram Khán Bárakzái captured Balkh, and from that time to the present it has remained under Afghán rule.

Ballabgarh.—The southern *tahsíl* of Delhi District, Punjab.

Ballabgarh. — Municipal town in Delhi District, Punjab; head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, and former capital of a Native State. Lat. 28° 20′ N., long. 77° 21′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 6281 souls, comprising 4869 Hindus, 1182 Muhammadans, 15 Síkhs, and 215 'others.' Lies on the Mattra road, 21½ miles south of Delhi. Originally held by Taga Bráhmans, but acquired about 1740 by a Ját adventurer, whose grandson, Ajít Sinh, obtained the title of Rájá from Nawáb Najaf Khán. The Rájá's son, Bahádur Sinh, was confirmed in his estates by Lord Lake, after the British conquest in 1803. He also acquired the *parganá* of Páli Pákal in 1805 as a grant for life, in return for police services on the Delhi and Palwál road; and this grant was continued to his successor up till the year 1827, when the Magistrate of Delhi undertook the management of the police. Rájá Náhar Sinh, the last of his line, rebelled in 1857, and was executed for his disloyalty, his estates being confiscated by the British Government. Contains a small but pretty palace, numerous temples, *tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, and school-house. Brisk trade in food grains with Delhi. Municipal income in 1875-76, £294; incidence of revenue, 10½d. per head of population (6671) within municipal limits.

Ballabhpur. — Suburb of Serampur, in Húglí District, Bengal. Two festivals connected with the god Jagannáth, which are celebrated with great pomp here and at the neighbouring village of Máhesh, attract large concourses. The first is the *Snán-játrá* or bathing festival, which takes place in May, and lasts only one day; the second and more important — the *Rath-játrá* (car festival) — is celebrated six weeks after the bathing of the idol. The god is brought out of his temple in Máhesh, placed upon a car, and dragged to Ballabhpur, a distance of about one mile. Here he is deposited in the temple of a brother god, Rádháballabh, where he remains for eight days, when the *ultá-rath* or return journey takes place, the god being escorted back to his temple in the same way as he was brought out. A large fair, held

at Máhesh at the time of the festival, lasts eight days. Business is combined with pleasure, and a brisk trade is carried on. The religious ceremonial is confined to the first and eighth days, when the idol is moved to and brought back from Ballabhpur. On these days the crowd is immense, having been estimated on some occasions to amount to 100,000.

Ballálpur.—Village in Chánda District, Central Provinces; 6 miles south of Chánda. Lat. 19° 50′ 45″ N., long. 79° 23′ 15″ E. It was the seat of an early Gond dynasty, and foundations of the old city can still be traced for a considerable distance in the jungle. Within a handsome stone fort, partly rebuilt about 1800, stand the remains of the ancient palace, including two tunnels sunk in opposite directions, each leading to a set of three underground chambers. North of the village are the ruins of a large and elaborate tank. To the east is the tomb of a Gond king; and in an islet in the Wardha, in the same direction, there is an exceedingly curious rock temple, known as the Rám Tírth, which, during several months of the year, lies fathoms under water. A few hundred yards beyond the Rám Tírth, in the bed of the river, a seam of coal has been laid bare by the action of the current. The village is picturesquely situated. It is surrounded by ancient groves, and the Wardha flows by in a deep, broad stream, between high and rocky banks. In 1870 the houses numbered 253; police outpost.

Ballal-rayan-durga.—Mountain in the range of the Western Gháts, in Kadur District, Mysore State; 4940 feet above sea level. Lat. 13° 8′ N., long. 75° 29′ E. Crowned by extensive fortifications, erected by a monarch of the Ballála dynasty (10th to 14th century).

Ballia.—*Tahsíl* of Ghazipur District, North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 37′ and 25° 51′ N. lat., and between 84° 5′ and 84° 29′ 30″ E. long., and forming the wedge of low-lying land at the confluence of the Gogra (Ghagra) with the Ganges; much intersected by side channels, which cut off numerous flat islands, and liable to inundation after heavy rains, when the two rivers unite their streams and sweep over the whole peninsula. Area, 532 square miles, of which 419 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 351,884 souls; land revenue, £32,954; total revenue, £36,257; rental paid by cultivators, £79,841; incidence of revenue per acre, 1s. 5⅝d.

Ballia.—Municipal town in Ghazipur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 25° 43′ 55″ N., long. 84° 11′ 5″ E.; pop. (1872), 8521 souls; area, 106 acres. Lies on the north bank of the Ganges, just below the point where it receives the Sarju, on a low-lying peninsula of modern alluvion, 42 miles east of Ghazipur. *Tahsíli*, civil court, police station, dispensary. Great bathing fair in October, at full moon of Kártik, called Dádri, and attended by about 50,000 persons. Municipal income in 1875-76, £830; from taxes,

£170, or 4⅜d. per head of population (9270) within municipal limits; fairs produced a revenue of £418.

Ballipalli.—Cuddapah District, Madras. Forest reservation of 2730 acres, and timber depôt. The most remunerative wood is the 'red saunder's root' (Pterocarpus santalinus), used for dyeing, first-class specimens yielding sometimes 900 per cent. profit on cost of protection.

Ballygunge (*Báliganj*).—Suburb south-east of Calcutta, situated within the limits of the South Suburban Municipality, and a station on the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway. There are a number of fine houses occupied by Europeans; and the lines of the Viceroy's Body-Guard, consisting of brick-built ranges, with stables, are situated here. Police station.

Bálotra.—Town in Jodhpore State, Rájputána, situated on the right bank of the Luni; on route from Balmer to Jodhpore city, 62 miles south-west of latter. Lat. 25° 49′ N., long. 72° 21′ 10″ E.; estimated pop. (Thornton), 7275, viz. 6750 Hindus and 525 Muhammadans. Standing on the high road from Jodhpore to Dwárká, a celebrated place of pilgrimage in the west of Guzerat, a stream of pilgrims annually passes through the town. To supply their wants there is an excellent market, and abundance of good water is to be had from 125 masonry wells. A great fair, lasting 15 days, and attended by more than 30,000 people, is held annually in March.

Balrámpur.—*Parganá* in Utraula *tahsíl*, Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Tulsipur *parganá*, on the east by Tulsipur and Basti District, on the south by Utraula *parganá*, and on the west by Bahraich District. The country was conquered about the middle of the 14th century by immigrant Janwárs, who founded the great Ikauna Ráj. In the seventh generation from the original invasion one of the Janwár chiefs separated from his brother, the Ikauna Rájá, and expelled a tribe of carpenters who held a tract between the Rápti and Kuwána rivers. His son, Balrám Dás, founded the town of Balrámpur, and also gave his name to the estate. The small tract originally acquired was augmented by the conquest of neighbouring territory, although much of it was afterwards wrested from the Janwárs by the Patháns of Utraula, and the Bisens. One of the most celebrated Rájás of Balrámpur was Newál Sinh, who succeeded to the estate in 1777. During his reign he was repeatedly engaged in hostilities with the Lucknow Court, and although often defeated by the King's troops, he was never subdued, and succeeded in keeping the assessment on his *parganá* at so low a rate as to amount to little more than a tribute. His grandson, the present Mahárájá, Sir Digbijái Sinh, K.C.S.I., came into possession in 1836. During the earlier years of his rule, he was frequently engaged in warfare with the neighbouring chiefs of Utraula and Tulsipur, and also with the revenue officers of the King's Court. On

the outbreak of the Mutiny, Digbijái Sinh, alone of all the chiefs of the Division, never wavered in his allegiance. He sheltered the English officers of the District within his fort, and finally sent them in safety to Gorakhpur. This loyal behaviour exposed him to the hostility of the rebel Government, and a *farmán* from Lucknow divided his territories among his old enemies of Utraula, Tulsipur, and Ikauna. A rebel force marched into the *parganá* to carry out the partition, but was called away elsewhere, without having effected its object. In the trans-Gogra campaign, which concluded the Mutiny, Rájá Digbijái Sinh joined the British force, and remained with it till the remnants of the rebel army were finally driven into Nepál. As a reward for his distinguished loyalty, he was granted the whole of the confiscated *parganá* of Tulsipur, besides large estates in Bahraich; 10 per cent. of the Government revenue on his ancestral estates was remitted, and a settlement in perpetuity granted to him. He also received the title of Mahárájá, and a Knight Commandership of the Star of India. The *parganá* is a large one, comprising an area of 395 square miles, and consists of three well-marked natural divisions. (1) The tract lying between the Rápti and Kuwára rivers, where the soil is generally a fair *dumát*, but poorly populated, and not under careful cultivation. (2) The *doáb* between the Rápti and Búrhi Rápti, which contains a few good villages, but frequently suffers from the floods of both rivers, which in many places join during the rains, leaving behind a barren, sandy deposit. Being higher at both extremities, the centre of this tract is occupied by an extensive grassy waste, which is for months under from 3 to 5 feet of water, and can only be reclaimed by the construction of expensive embankments. (3) The land to the north of the Búrhi Ráoti, which is generally a fine clay, and well cultivated. Its most striking feature is the number of hill torrents by which it is intersected. Water exists everywhere near the surface, and is struck at an average depth of not more than 10 feet. Total area under cultivation, 186,000 acres, of which 33,000 are under two crops; acreage under principal crops—winter rice, 45,640; autumn rice, 23,030; gram, 23,500; *masuri*, 11,700; wheat, 23,730; mustard seed, 10,115. The tillage is not usually of a high class, and rents are almost always paid in kind. At the time of the settlement operations in 1871-72, the Government land revenue demand was fixed in perpetuity at £23,709 (subject to a deduction of 10 per cent., as already mentioned), equal to a rate of 1s. 10¾d. on the whole area, or 2s. 4¾d. on the cultivated area. With the exception of a few very small independent holdings, not amounting to ½ per cent. of the total area, the whole *parganá* is the property of Sir Digbijái Sinh. Population in 1869, 140,641 Hindus and 19,596 Muhammadans—total, 160,237, viz. 82,434 males and 77,803 females. The most numerous castes are Kúrmis, Bráhmans,

and Ahirs. Kshattriyas are unusually scarce; a few scattered houses of the old aboriginal population of Bhars and Tharus yet remain; wandering, gipsy-like people, known as Siárkhawas, who live by hunting and in camps, are very common. The principal trading villages are Balrámpur and Mathura. Besides two unmetalled roads, the villages are connected by rough cart tracks. Ferries are established at several points on the Rápti, and a stationary bridge of boats at Sisiá.

Balrámpur.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh; situated on the north bank of the Suwáwan river, about 2 miles south of the Rápti, 28 miles from Gonda town. Lat. 27° 25′ 30″ N., long. 82° 13′ 50″ E. The largest town in Gonda District, and the residence of the Mahárájá of Balrámpur, the wealthiest of the Oudh *tálukdárs.* Pop. (1869), 10,624 Hindus and 3402 Muhammadans — total, 14,026, inhabiting 3035 houses; 53 Hindu temples and 17 mosques. A handsome stone temple, dedicated to Bijleswari Devi, profusely carved by artists from Benares, has been recently completed. The *bázár*, which is new and commodious, consists of two cross streets, with the usual traders' shops. The Mahárájá's palace is an imposing pile, enclosing a large court, on one side of which are ranged the dwelling-houses and offices, and on the other the stables and outhouses. There is a daily *bázár*, and the market forms the centre of the rice trade of the surrounding country. Manufactures — cotton cloths, blankets, felt, knives, etc. Large school, liberally supported by the Mahárájá, attended by 140 boys. Order is maintained, and conservancy enforced, by 22 town policemen.

Bálsamand.—Village in Hissar District, Punjab; 15 miles south-west of Hissar. Pop. (1868), 2333 souls; second-class police station. Conveniently situated to become an *entrepôt* for salt from Rájputána. A market has been recently established, and several shops erected, principally by traders from foreign territory.

Balsan.—One of the Punjab Hill States, lying between 30° 58′ 15″ and 31° 7′ 15″ N. lat., and between 77° 24′ 30″ and 77° 35′ 15″ E. long.; area, 51 square miles; estimated population, 6000; estimated revenue, £700. TheRáná, Dhop Sinh, is a Rájput. Sentences of death passed by him require the confirmation of the Superintendent of the Hill States and of the Commissioner of the Division; other punishments are awarded by the Ráná on his own authority. Balsan pays a tribute of £118 to the British Government, in commutation of an engagement to supply 30 *begars*. The State was originally a feudatory of Sirmúr.

Balsár.—Town in Surat District, Bombay.—*See* BULSAR.

Baluá.—Trading village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 24′ 40″ N., long. 87° 3′ 1″ E.; pop. (1872), 2820. Recent changes in the course of the Kúsí have brought that river within 2 miles of Baluá. Principal trade—oil-seeds, collected from different parts of the District,

and from Nepál and Tirhut, to be exported by the Kúsí to Calcutta. Chief imports—salt and piece-goods, which are sold to merchants from Nepál.

Baluchistán.—A tract of country, whose coast is continuous with the north-western seaboard of the Indian Peninsula; bounded on the north by Afghánistán, on the east by Sind, on the south by the Arabian Sea, and on the west by Persia. Although Baluchistán lies beyond the limits of British India, some account of it may be useful to those who consult this work. It would be unsuitable, however, that any appearance of official authority should attach to my account of a foreign State. To prevent such a misapprehension, I confine myself to materials already published. With the permission of General Sir W. H. Green (the author), and of Messrs A. & C. Black (the publishers), I condense, therefore, the article on Baluchistán in the ninth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the ablest concise account of the country which has yet been made available to the public. General Green has kindly revised and made additions to this article.

The frontier between Persia and Baluchistán, drawn by an English commission sent out in 1870 under Sir F. Goldsmid, runs from Gwadur Bay (about 61° 36′ E. long.) northwards to lat. 26° 15′ N., when it turns eastward to the Nihing river, following which north and east to its sources, it passes on to about 63° 12′ E. long., afterwards resuming a northerly direction to Jalk. As thus determined, Baluchistán has an area of about 106,500 square miles. It extends from lat. 24° 50′ to 30° 20′ N., and from long. 61° 10′ to 68° 38′ E.; its extreme length from east to west being 500 miles, and its breadth 370.

The outline of the sea-coast is in general remarkably regular, running nearly due east and west, a little north of lat. 24° 46′, from Cape Monze, on the border of Sind, to Cape Juni, near the river Dasti. It is for the most part craggy, but not remarkably elevated, and has in some places, for a considerable distance, a low sandy shore, though almost everywhere the surface becomes much higher inland. The principal headlands, proceeding from east to west, are Cape Monze or Ras Moari, which is the eastern headland of Sonmeani Bay; Gurab Sinh; Ras Arubah; Ras Nu, forming the western headland of Gwadel Bay; Ras Juni, forming the eastern point of Gwadur Bay, and Cape Zegin at its western extremity. There is no good harbour along the coast, though it extends about 600 miles; but there are several roadsteads with good holding-ground, and sheltered on several points. Of these the best are Sonmeani Bay, Homara, and Gwadur. On the latter are situated a small town and a fort of the same name, and also a telegraph station of the Indo-European line.

History.—Of the early history of this portion of the Asiatic continent, little or nothing is known. The poverty and natural strength of the

country, combined with the ferocious habits of the natives, seem to have equally repelled the friendly visits of inquisitive strangers and the hostile incursions of invading armies. The first distinct account which we have is from Arrian, who, with his usual brevity and severe veracity, narrates the march of Alexander through this region, which he calls the country of the Oritæ and Gadrosii. He gives a very accurate account of this forlorn tract, its general aridity, and the necessity of obtaining water by digging in the beds of torrents; describes the food of the inhabitants as dates and fish; and adverts to the occasional occurrence of fertile spots, the abundance of aromatic and thorny shrubs and fragrant plants, and the violence of the monsoon in the western part of Mekran. He notices also the impossibility of subsisting a large army, and the consequent destruction of the greater part of the men and beasts which accompanied the expedition of Alexander. At the commencement of the 8th century the country was traversed by an army of the Caliphate.

The country is inhabited by two distinct races, the Brahuí and Baluch. These are each divided into numerous classes; and although Baluchistán derives its name from the latter, the Brahuís are considered the dominant people, and from amongst them the rulers of the country are always selected. So marked is the social distinction between these races, that when the Khán assembles his tribes for warlike purposes, the Brahuí portion demand as a right wheaten flour for their rations, while the Baluch can only claim a much coarser grain called *joár*. The period of the arrival of either of the above races in the country is a matter of uncertainty, although many surmises have been offered. One of the numerous traditions most prevalent is, that the last Rájá of the Hindu dynasty, named Siwa, found himself compelled to call in the assistance of the mountain shepherds to aid in repelling the attacks of certain marauders from the direction of Sind, who, under the leadership of an Afghán chief, threatened to attack the seat of Government. The mountain shepherds, under a chief called Kumber, having successfully performed this service, and finding themselves more powerful than those who called them from their mountains, drove out the Hindu Rájá, when Kumber formally assumed the sovereignty of the country. Whether the above story really recounts the origin of the Brahuí conquest, has yet to be decided; the Kumberaní tribe, however, takes the precedence amongst all those to be found in the country.

The date of the arrival of the Baluch is equally obscure; but it is probably subsequent to that of the Brahuís. They themselves insist that they are of Arabic origin, and came from Aleppo, under the leadership of one Chakur; after whom some of the most prominent peaks, as well as passes, in the mountains inhabited by the Murree

(Marí) and Bhugti tribes are called, such as Chakír-ke-Mari and Chakír-ke-Tung. The above tribes, from their isolated position, and their marauding habits, have preserved their individuality better than have any others in the country. A tribe of Sheiks, called Kyberi, who are located at the foot of the above mountains, and who claim to have arrived at the same time as the Baluch from Syria, possess a breed of horses showing unmistakable signs of Arab blood.

Taking a general view of the original inhabitants of Baluchistán, we may conclude that they have, from a very early date, been reinforced by emigration from other countries, and from stragglers dropped from the hosts of the numerous conquerors, from Alexander to Nádir Sháh, who have passed and repassed through Baluchistán or its neighbourhood on their way to and from India. Thus we find the Saka tribe located on the plains of Gressia, on the borders of Mekran, the ancient Gedrosia, and still farther to the west, the Dahui. These tribes are on the direct line of Alexander's march; and we know that tribes of this name from the shores of the Caspian accompanied his army. In Saráwan we find the Sirperra, and Pliny tells us that a tribe called Saraparæ resided near the Oxus. Further, on the Dasht-i-Bidaulat, a plain at the northern entrance of the Bolan Pass, we find the Kurds, a name, again, familiar as that of a celebrated and ancient nation. The names of many other tribes might be cited to support this view, but it would require too much space to follow up the subject. Both Brahuis and Baluchis are Muhammadans of the Suní sect.

The precise period at which the Brahuis gained the mastery cannot be accurately ascertained; but it was probably about two centuries ago. The last Rájá of the Hindu dynasty found himself compelled to call for the assistance of the mountain shepherds, with their leader, Kumbur, in order to check the encroachments of a horde of depredators, headed by an Afghán chief, who infested the country, and even threatened to attack the seat of government. Kumbur successfully performed the service for which he had been engaged; but having in a few years quelled the robbers, against whom he had been called in, and finding himself at the head of the only military tribe in the country, he formally deposed the Rájá and assumed the government.

The history of the country after the accession of Kumbur is as obscure as during the Hindu dynasty. It would appear, however, that the sceptre was quietly transmitted to Abdullá Khán, the fourth in descent from Kumbur, who, being an intrepid and ambitious soldier, turned his thoughts towards the conquest of Kachh Gandáva, then held by different petty chiefs, under the authority of the Nawábs of Sind. After various success, the Kumburanis at length possessed themselves of the sovereignty of a considerable portion of that fruitful

plain, including the chief town, Gandáva. It was during this contest that the famous Nádir Sháh advanced from Persia to the invasion of Hindustán; and while at Kandahár, he despatched several detachments into Baluchistán, and established his authority in that Province. Abdullá Khán, however, was continued in the government of the country by Nádir's order; but he was soon after killed in a battle with the forces of the Nawábs of Sind. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Hájí Muhammad Khán, who abandoned himself to the most tyrannical and licentious way of life, and alienated his subjects by oppressive taxation. In these circumstances, Nasír Khán, the second son of Abdullá Khán, who had accompanied the victorious Nádir to Delhi, and acquired the favour and confidence of that monarch, returned to Khelát, and was hailed by the whole population as their deliverer. Finding that expostulation had no effect upon his brother, he one day entered his apartment and stabbed him to the heart. As soon as the tyrant was dead, Nasír Khán mounted the *masnad*, amidst the universal joy of his subjects; and immediately transmitted a report of the events which had taken place to Nádir Sháh, who was then encamped near Kandahár. The Sháh received the intelligence with satisfaction, and despatched a *farmán*, by return of the messenger, appointing Nasír Khán *beglerbey* of all Baluchistán. This event took place in the year 1739.

Nasír Khán proved an active, politic, and warlike prince. He took great pains to re-establish the internal government of all the provinces under his dominion, and improved and fortified the city of Khelát. On the death of Nádir Sháh in 1747, he acknowledged the title of the King of Kábul, Ahmad Sháh Abdullá. In 1758, he declared himself entirely independent; upon which Ahmad Sháh despatched a force against him, under one of his ministers. The Khán, however, raised an army and totally routed the Afghán general. On receiving intelligence of this discomfiture, the king himself marched with strong reinforcements, and a pitched battle was fought, in which Nasír Khán was worsted. He retired in good order to Khelát, whither he was followed by the victor, who invested the place with his whole army. The Khán made a vigorous defence; and after the royal troops had been foiled in their attempts to take the city by storm or surprise, a negotiation was proposed by the king, which terminated in a treaty of peace. By this treaty it was stipulated that the king was to receive the cousin of Nasír Khán in marriage; and that the Khán was to pay no tribute, but only, when called upon, to furnish troops to assist the Kábul army, for which he was to receive an allowance in cash equal to half their pay. The Khán frequently distinguished himself in the subsequent wars of Kábul; and, as a reward for services, the king bestowed upon him several Districts in perpetual and entire sovereignty. Having succeeded in quelling a

dangerous rebellion, headed by his cousin Bahrám Khán, this able prince at length died in extreme old age, in the month of June 1795, leaving three sons and five daughters. He was succeeded by his eldest son Mahmúd Khán, then a boy of about fourteen years. During the reign of this prince, who has been described as a humane and indolent man, the country was distracted by sanguinary broils. The governors of several Provinces and Districts withdrew their allegiance; and the dominions of the Kháns of Khelát gradually diminished, until they comprehended only a small portion of the Provinces formerly subject to Nasír Khán.

In 1839, when the British army advanced through the Bolan Pass towards Afghanistán, the conduct of Mehrab Khán, the ruler of Baluchistán, was considered so treacherous and dangerous as to require 'the exaction of retribution from that chieftain,' and 'the execution of such arrangements as would establish future security in that quarter.' General Willshire was accordingly detached from the army of the Indus with 1050 men, to attack Khelát. A gate was knocked in by the field-pieces, and the town and citadel were stormed in a few minutes. Above 400 Baluchis were slain, among them Mehrab Khán himself; and 2000 prisoners were taken. Subsequent inquiries, however, proved that the treachery towards the British was not on the part of Mehrab Khán, but on that of his vizier, Muhammad Hussain, and certain chiefs with whom he was in league, at whose instigation the British convoys were plundered in their passage through Kachh-Gandává and in the Bolán Pass. The treacherous vizier, however, made our too credulous political officers believe that Mehrab Khán was to blame,—his object being to bring his master to ruin and to obtain for himself all power in the State, knowing that Mehrab's successor was a child. How far he succeeded in his object history has shown. In the following year Khelát changed hands, the governor established by the British, together with a feeble garrison, being overpowered. At the close of the same year it was reoccupied by the British under General Nott. In 1841, Nasír Khán, the youthful son of the slain Mehrab Khán, was recognised by the British, who soon after evacuated the country.

From the conquest of Sind by the British troops under the command of Sir Charles Napier in 1843 up to the year 1854, no diplomatic intercourse occurred worthy of note between the British and Baluchistán. In the latter year, however, under the Governor-Generalship of the Marquis of Dalhousie, General John Jacob, at that time political superintendent and commandant on the Sind frontier, was deputed to arrange a treaty between the Khelát State, then under the chieftainship of Mír Nasír Khán, and the British Government. This treaty was executed on the 14th of May 1854, and was to the following effect:—

'That the former offensive and defensive treaty, concluded in 1841 by Major Outram between the British Government and Mír Nasír Khán, chief of Khelát, was to be annulled.

'That Mír Nasír Khán, his heirs and successors, bound themselves to oppose to the utmost all the enemies of the British Government, and in all cases to act in subordinate co-operation with that Government, and to enter into no negotiations with other States without its consent.

'That should it be deemed necessary to station British troops in any part of the territory of Khelát, they shall occupy such positions as may be thought advisable by the British authorities.

'That the Baluch chief was to prevent all plundering on the part of subjects within, or in the neighbourhood of, British territory.

'That he was further to protect all merchants passing through his territory, and only to exact from them a transit duty, fixed by schedule attached to the treaty; and that, on condition of a faithful performance of these duties, he was to receive from the British Government an annual subsidy of 50,000 rupees (£5000).'

The provisions of the above treaty were loyally performed by Mír Nasír Khán up to the time of his death in 1856. He was succeeded by his brother Mír Khodádad Khán, the present ruler, a youth of twelve years of age, who, however, did not obtain his position before he had put down by force a rebellion on the part of his turbulent chiefs, who had first elected him, but, not receiving what they considered an adequate reward from his treasury, sought to depose him in favour of his cousin Sher Dil Khán. In the latter part of 1857, the Indian rebellion being at its height, and the city of Delhi still in the hands of the rebels, a British officer (Major Henry Green) was deputed on the part of the British Government, to reside as Political Agent with the Khán at Khelát, and to assist him by his advice in maintaining control over his turbulent tribes. This duty was successfully performed until 1863, when, during the temporary absence of Major Malcolm Green, then political agent, Khodádad Khán was, at the instigation of some of his principal chiefs, attacked, while out riding, by his cousin Sher Dil Khán, and severely wounded. Khodádad fled in safety to a residence close to the British border, and Sher Dil Khán was elected and proclaimed Khán. His rule was, however, a short one, for early in 1864, when proceeding to Khelát, he was murdered in the Gandává Pass; and Khodádad was again elected chief by the very men who had the previous year caused his overthrow, and who had lately been accomplices to the murder of his cousin. Since the above events Khodádad has maintained his precarious position with great difficulty. Owing to his inability to govern his unruly subjects without material assistance from the British Government, his country fell into a state of chronic anarchy; and the provisions of the treaty of 1854 having

been broken, diplomatic relations were discontinued with the Khelát (or Baluchistán) State at the end of 1874.

Baluchistán soon commenced to feel the effects of the withdrawal of the support of the British Government. It sank into such disorder that the Government of India found itself compelled to interfere. At the desire of the Baluch Ruler and his feudatories, Captain Sandeman, accompanied by a strong escort of cavalry, infantry, and artillery, was sent, in April 1876, to Khelát, with a view to settling the disputes between the Khán and his chiefs, and to renewing the friendly relations between the British and Baluch States. In due time he accomplished both objects; and in December 1876, it was arranged that the Khán of Khelát, with his principal vassals, should visit the frontier station of Jacobabad, in order to meet the Viceroy, Lord Lytton. At this interview, the Treaty of 1854, with certain articles added to it, was renewed on the 8th of December 1876 [*vide* Blue Book, No. 2.—Papers relating to Treaty with Khelát, published 1877, pp. 314-316].

Their meeting was of the most satisfactory nature. The Khán felt that in future he would receive from the British Government substantial aid in maintaining the peace of the country. A proposal frequently urged by former political officers, of forming a police for the protection of the traffic through the Bolan Pass, was sanctioned; and at the Khán's desire it was agreed that a British Agent should permanently reside at his Court.

Subsequently, the Khán, with his principal chiefs, attended the Grand Durbar at Delhi, for the purpose of proclaiming the Queen Empress of India, on the 1st of January 1877.

On the Khán's return to Khelát, the British Agent received the title of Governor-General's Agent for Baluchistán, and he was further directed to station a portion of his escort at Quetta. In September 1878, Sher Ali, the Ruler of the neighbouring State of Afghánistán, refused to receive a British envoy, while he admitted one from the Emperor of Russia. In November of the same year, the British Government found it necessary to send an army into Afghánistán in three columns, one by the Khaibar Pass, one by the Kuram, and one by the Bolan Pass, *viâ* Baluchistán.

As soon as the Ruler of Baluchistán was made aware of the impending hostilities between the British and the Amír of Afghánistán, he at once placed at our disposal the resources of his country; sending his son and heir-apparent to accompany the General in command of the army passing through his dominions.

The territories of Baluchistán are now comprised under the following divisions:—Jaláwan, Saráwan, Khelát, Mekran, Lus, Kachh-Gandává, and Kohistán.

Physical Aspects.—The most remarkable features of this extensive country are its rugged and elevated surface, its barrenness, and its

deficiency of water. The mass of mountains which forms the eastern boundary of that division of Baluchistán called the Kohistán, or mountain territory, lying between the capital, Khelát (lat. 29° 1′ 38″ N., long. about 66° 39′ E.), and the plain country to the east of it, designated Kachhí or Kachh-Gandává, is composed of several parallel ranges of limestone rock, in close proximity to each other, having a general strike of north-north-east to south-south-west, and a breadth of about 55 miles. This range originates in Afghánistán, and enters Baluchistán north of the Bolán Pass in about 30° N. lat. and 60° 30′ E. long., under the name of Herbui; and after throwing out a branch to the eastward, which touches the river Indus at Sehwan, terminates, under the designation of the Hala Mountains, at Cape Monze on the coast of the Arabian Sea, west of Karáchi, in about 25° N. lat. and 66° 68′ E. long., thus having a total length of upwards of 300 miles. The highest mountain of this range is the Chehil Tan, bearing about north by east 85 miles from Khelát, and attaining an altitude of 12,000 feet above the sea. The western range of the Herbui Mountains in this portion of Baluchistán is barren and without timber, and scantily peopled with pastoral tribes of Brahuis, who emigrate to the plains of Kachhí on the approach of the winter months.

North of the Bolán river and Pass the Herbui Mountains are met, in about 30° N. lat., by confused ranges of rough precipitous mountains, which extend to the eastward with a strike nearly east and west to the Sulaimán range, in about 29° 5′ N. lat. and 69° 30′ E. long. This tract is almost entirely inhabited by Marris, Bugtis, and other tribes of Baluch plunderers, and is bounded on the north by the Province of Sewestán. South of these ranges lies the desert country, which touches the Sind frontier in 28° 27′ N. lat.

The two principal water-courses which drain the Kohistán portion of Baluchistán east of Khelát are the rivers Bolán and Mula, the former rising about 60 miles north-east of Khelát, the latter at Anjíra (lat. 28° 19′ N., long. 66° 29′ E.), about 45 miles south of that city. They both discharge themselves into the plains of Kacchi, the former at Dádar, lat. 29° 28′ 51″ N., long. 67° 26′ E., and the latter at Kotra near Gandává, lat. 28° 33′ 47″ N., long. 67° 26′ E. There is at all seasons a plentiful supply of clear running water in these streams, which is entirely used up for irrigation purposes on issuing into the plains. They are subject to dangerous floods from sudden storms in the neighbouring mountains during the rainy season. The two easiest and safest passes from Central Asia into India take their names from these streams. (*See* BOLAN and MULA.) South of the Mula, the Gaj river issues into the plains, and its waters are also absorbed in cultivation. The Nara issues into the plains near Kujjuk, north-west corner of Kachh-Gandává, in lat. 29° 36′ N., and long. 68° 2′ E.; ordinarily its

water is utilized entirely for cultivation in its course through the Afghán Province of Sibi; but at periods of heavy rains in the mountains it is liable to burst its banks, and then inundates immense tracts in the Kachhi desert to the south.

West of Khelát, as far as about 65° 30′ E. long., the mountain ranges have much the same strike, and are of the same nature as those to the eastward, but the ranges are much narrower, more defined, and of a lower altitude. The valleys between them vary from 5 to 15 miles in breadth; they are quite devoid of trees. The water-courses generally follow the direction of the hills from north to south, and in some instances during heavy rains their waters reach the Arabian Sea; but as a general rule they are absorbed long before they reach the coast, partly in cultivation, but principally by the sandy arid nature of the soil and excessive dryness of the atmosphere, due probably to the proximity of the great desert west of Kharan, which extends to the confines of Persia. The most important of these water-courses is the Dasti or Muliáni.

Climate, etc.—The climate of Baluchistán is extremely various in the different Provinces. The soil in general is exceedingly stony. In the Province of Kachh-Gandává, however, it is rich and loamy, and so productive that, it is said, were it all properly cultivated, the crops would be more than sufficient for the supply of the whole of Baluchistán. Gold, silver, lead, iron, tin, antimony, brimstone, alum, sal-ammoniac, and many kinds of mineral salts, and saltpetre, are found in various parts of the country. The precious metals have only been discovered in working for iron and lead, in mines near the town of Nal, about 150 miles south-south-west of Khelát. The different other minerals above enumerated are very plentiful. The gardens of Khelát produce many sorts of fruit, which are sold at a moderate rate, such as apricots, peaches, grapes, almonds, pistachio-nuts, apples, pears, plums, currants, cherries, quinces, figs, pomegranates, mulberries, plantains, melons, guavas, etc. All kinds of grain known in India are cultivated in the different Provinces of Baluchistán, and there is abundance of vegetables. Madder, cotton, and indigo are also produced; and the latter is considered superior to that of Bengal. Great attention is given to the culture of the date fruit in the Province of Mekran. The domestic animals of Baluchistán are horses, mules, asses, camels, buffaloes, cattle, sheep, goats, dogs, and cats, besides fowls and pigeons; but there are neither geese, turkeys, nor ducks. The wild animals are tigers, leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals, tiger-cats, wild dogs, foxes, hares, mangooses, mountain goats, antelopes, many kinds of deer, wild asses, etc. Of birds there are almost every species to be met with either in Europe or India.

Towns.—The principal towns in Baluchistán are as follows:—

Khelát is the capital of the whole country; Mustoong, of the Province of Saráwan; Kozdar, of Jaláwan; Beyla, of Beyla; Kej, of Mekran; Bágh, of Kachh-Gandává; and Dádar and Gandává are towns in the last-mentioned Province.

The capital stands on an elevated site 7000 feet above the sea, on the western side of a well-cultivated plain or valley, about 8 miles long and 2 or 3 broad, a great part of which is laid out in gardens and other enclosures. The town is built in an oblong form, and on three sides is defended by a mud wall, 18 or 20 feet high, flanked at intervals of 250 yards by bastions, which, as well as the wall itself, are pierced with numerous loopholes for matchlock-men. The defence of the fourth side of the city has been formed by cutting away perpendicularly the western face of the hill on which it is partly built. On the summit of this eminence stands the palace, commanding a distinct view of the town and adjacent country. That quarter of the hill on which the Khán's residence is erected has been enclosed by a mud wall, with bastions; the entrance to it is on the south-western side; and here, as well as at the city gates, which are three in number, there is constantly a guard of matchlock-men. Both town and citadel are, however, completely commanded by the surrounding hills, and are incapable of offering any resistance against artillery. Within the walls there are upwards of 2500 houses, and the number of those in the suburbs probably exceeds one-half of that amount. The houses are mostly built of half-burnt brick or wooden frames, plastered over with mud or mortar. In general, the streets are broader than those of native towns, and most of them have a raised pathway on each side for foot-passengers, and also an uncovered kennel in the centre, which is a nuisance, from the quantity of filth thrown into it and the stagnant rain-water that lodges there. The upper storeys of the houses frequently project across the street, and thereby render the part beneath them gloomy and damp. This seems a rude attempt to imitate the *bazars* of Persia and Kábul. The *bazar* of Khelát is extensive, well furnished with every kind of goods; all the necessaries of life may be purchased there at a moderate price. The town is supplied with delicious water from a spring in the face of a hill on the opposite side of a plain, whence it meanders nearly through its centre, having the town and suburbs on one side, and on the other the gardens. It may be remarked of this spring that the waters, at their immediate issue from the smaller channels, possess a considerable degree of tepidity until after sunrise, when they suddenly become exceedingly cold, and remain so during the day.

Population.—We have no data from which to form an accurate computation of the population of Baluchistán, but it may be estimated at about 400,000. The two great races of Baluch and Brahui, each

subdivided into an infinite number of tribes, are clearly distinguished from each other by their language and appearance. The Baluch, or Baluchki, language partakes considerably of the idiom of the modern Persian, although greatly disguised under a singularly corrupt pronunciation. The Brahuiki, on the other hand, has nothing analogous to Persian, but appears to contain a great number of ancient Hindu words, and, as it strikes the ear, bears a strong resemblance to the dialect spoken in the Punjab. The Baluchis in general have tall figures, long visages, and raised features; the Brahuis, on the contrary, have short, thick bones, with round faces and flat lineaments.

The Baluchis are a handsome, active race of men, not possessing great physical strength, but inured to changes of climate and season, and capable of enduring every species of fatigue. In their habits they are pastoral, and much addicted to predatory warfare, in the course of which they do not hesitate to commit every kind of outrage and cruelty. Notwithstanding their predatory habits, however, they are considered to be a hospitable people. After the fashion of other barbarous tribes in that part of the world, they will protect and kindly entertain a stranger while their guest, but feel no scruple in robbing and murdering him as soon as he has left their precincts. They are indolent, and unless excited by amusement or war, or compelled to action by some urgent motive, spend their time in idleness, rude dissipation, and the enjoyment of such coarse luxuries as they can procure—in lounging, gambling, smoking tobacco or hemp, and chewing opium. The tenets of their religion, and still more, perhaps, their poverty, preserve them from the abuse of fermented liquors. Their principal articles of food are milk in all its forms, the flesh of domestic animals, not excepting that of the camel, and game, including wild asses, the flesh of which is considered a delicacy. Their appetites are voracious; they consume incredible quantities of flesh when it can be obtained, and prefer it in a half-cooked state. They also use grain in the form of bread, and prepared in various other ways; but they enjoy most such articles of food or condiment as possess a strong and stimulating flavour, as capsicum, onions, and garlic. Their indolence prompts them to keep as many slaves as they can obtain and support. Polygamy is universal. Some of the lower orders have as many as eight women, either as wives or concubines, and the number is increased in proportion to the rank and means of the man. Wives are obtained by purchase, payment being made in cattle or other articles of pastoral wealth. The ceremony of marriage is performed by the *mullah* or priest; and on this occasion, as well as on some others affecting females, practices similar to those of the Levitical law are observed. For instance, in this country, as also among the Afgháns, a man is expected to marry the widow of a deceased brother. When a death

takes place, the body is watched for three successive nights by assembled friends and neighbours, who spend their time in feasting, so that the ceremony seems intended rather to furnish enjoyment to the living than to render honour to the dead.

The common dress of the Brahui is a coarse white or blue calico shirt, buttoned round the neck, and reaching below the knee; their trousers are made of the same cloth, or of a kind of striped stuff called *susi*, and puckered round the ankles. On their heads they wear a small silk or cotton-quilted cap, fitted to the shape of the skull, and a *kammarband* or sash, of the same colour, round their waists. The Baluchis wear a similar dress, but a turban on the head, and wide trousers unconfined at the ankle. In winter the chiefs and their relatives appear in a tunic of chintz, lined and stuffed with cotton; and the poorer classes, when out of doors, wrap themselves up in a surtout made of cloth, manufactured from a mixture of goats' hair and sheep's wool. The women's dress is very similar to that of the men; their trousers are preposterously wide, and made of silk, or a mixture of silk and cotton.

The fluctuation of power renders it difficult to define precisely the nature of the government of Khelát. During the reign of Nasír Khán the whole kingdom might be said to have been governed by a complete despotism; yet that ruler so tempered the supreme authority by the privileges granted to the feudal chiefs within their own tribes, that, to a casual observer, it bore the appearance of a military confederation. The tribes all exercise the right of selecting their own *sardár*, or head. The Khán has the power of confirming or disapproving of their nomination; but this power is never exercised, and appears to be merely nominal. The Khán of Khelát declares war and makes treaties connected with the whole of Baluchistán, and can order the *sardár* of each tribe to attend in person with his quota of troops. Agreeably to a code of regulations framed by one of the earliest princes of the Kumburáni dynasty, the entire administration of justice is vested in the person at the head of the government. Each *sardár*, however, has the power of adjusting petty quarrels, thefts, and disputed points of every description, among the inhabitants of a *khel* or society; but, in all cases of importance, an appeal lies in the last instance to the Khán at Khelát.

Revenue and Military Resources.—The amount of revenue enjoyed by the Khán of Khelát is inconsiderable, as the ruling races, Baluch and Brahui, pay no direct taxes, and their poverty and simple habits prevent them from contributing much indirectly. His income is therefore derived from his resources as a proprietor of lands or towns; from a proportion of the produce paid in kind by the Afghán, Dehwar, and Ját cultivators; from dues on local and transit trade; and from

arbitrary exactions, a never-failing mode with Eastern potentates of recruiting an exhausted treasury. Pottinger estimated the amount at £35,000; Masson, who had ample means of acquiring information through colloquial channels, at £30,000. At the present date (1875) it is 300,000 rupees, or £30,000, at the utmost. With such a revenue it is obvious that no standing army can be maintained; and Masson, certainly very competent to the task of acquiring information on this subject, states that Mehrab Khán, 'nearly destitute of troops in his own pay, was compelled, on the slightest cause for alarm, to appeal to the tribes, who attended or otherwise as suited their whims or convenience.' Pottinger computed the number of available fighting men at 60,000. Mehrab Khán could on no occasion assemble more than 12,000, and in his final struggle for power and life, the number of his troops did not amount to 3000. At the present time (1875), about 40,000 would probably be available if all attended the summons, but the utmost number the Khán could collect would be about 10,000. All depends upon the state of the treasury, the cause of the war, and the power the Khán may be able to exert over his chiefs. The Baluch soldier is heavily encumbered with arms, carrying a matchlock, a sword, a dagger, and a shield. Pottinger considered them good marksmen, and states that in action they trust principally to their skill in this respect, avoiding close combat; but their readiness in general to close with the British troops shows that he was in this instance mistaken. There were no Brahuis opposed to our forces at the battle of Meeanee (Miani), nor were there any Baluchis from Baluchistán. The levies of the Amír of Sind were principally composed of Sindí and Baluch tribes who had long been settled in Sind. The greater part serve on foot; but a not inconsiderable number have horses. Camels are only used by tribes on the western borders of Baluchistán in their predatory excursions.

Bamanbor.—One of the petty States in North Káthiáwár, Bombay, consisting of 4 villages, with one independent tribute-payer. Lat. 22° 24′ N., long. 71° 6′ E. Estimated revenue in 1876, £210; a tribute of £7, 12s. is paid to the British Government. Chief village, Bamanbor.

Bámanghátí.—The northern Division of Morbhanj, one of the Orissa Tributary States under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, comprising 647 villages, 18,595 houses, and a total population in 1872 of 94,526 persons, of whom 23,500 are Hindus, 479 Muhammadans, and 70,547 belong to aboriginal tribes, chiefly Santáls and Kols. Bámanghátí is now, and has been for many years, under direct British management, the supervising officer being the Deputy-Commissioner of Singbhúm. This was necessitated by a peasant rebellion, brought on by the oppression of the aborigines at the hands of the Hindu land-stewards and petty officials of the Rájá.

Bámani.—Mountain peak near Ráyabigi, in the Jeypore (Jáipur) Estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras; height, 2488 feet. Lat. 19° 35′ N., long. 83° 40′ E.

Bamanri.—Village in Bareilly (Bareli) District, North-West Provinces, situated in lat. 29° 13′ N., and long. 79° 35′ E.; on the route from Bareilly to Almora, 42 miles south of the latter; elevation above the sea, 1700 feet.

Bamburá.—Ruined city in Kurrachee (Karáchi) District, Sind. Lat. 24° 40′ N., long. 67° 41′ E. It was once a fortified city, with temples of renowned sanctity, but was stormed by the Muhammadans in their first invasion in 711 A.D. Tradition preserves its old name as Debal Dewal or Dawal; and the ruins, as also the numerous coins found on the site, attest its former population and importance.

Bámra.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 8′ 30″ and 22° 11′ 30″ N. lat., and between 84° 10′ 15″ and 85° 15′ 30″ E. long. On the north it runs up into a point between the Bonái and Gángpur States, on the south it is bounded by the State of Rairákhol, on the east by Tálcher and Lairá, and on the west by Sambalpur; extreme length from north to south, about 75 miles; extreme breadth, about 64; area, 1988 square miles; population in 1872, 53,613.

Physical Aspects.—To the south, Bámra is broken up by hills and covered with jungle, but the regions in the north-west and centre are particularly fertile. The soil is light and sandy, becoming more loamy in the neighbourhood of the hills. The only river of importance is the Bráhmaní, which flows through the eastern part of the State from north to south. The magnificent *sál* forests are comparatively valueless, for want of means to get the timber to a market.

History.—Bámra was formerly subject to Sargúja, but was added to the Garhját cluster of States in the 15th century by Balrám Deva, the first Rájá of Sambalpur. The ruling family claim to be Gangá-bansí Rájputs. Their traditions, however, do not extend beyond the middle of the 16th century, when it is said that Rám Chandra Deva was Rájá. From him 10 successions are deduced to the present chief, Sudhat Deva, who is now (1877) twenty-nine years of age, and has a son.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Bámra at 22,456 souls. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 53,613. The latest estimate, in 1877, indicates a total of 56,613. The Census of 1872, however, still remains the only basis for a detailed examination of the population. It showed a total of 53,613 persons, on an area of 1988 square miles, residing in 480 villages or townships, and 10,336 houses. Persons per square mile, 26·96; villages per square mile, 0·24; persons per village, 111·69; houses per square mile, 5·19; persons per house, 5·18. Only 7 houses, occupied by 51 persons,

are returned as of the better sort. Population classified according to sex—Males, 28,170; females, 25,443; according to age, the male children under 12 years numbered 9125, the female children under 12 years, 8334. Ethnical division — Hindus, 31,615; Muhammadans, 23; aboriginal tribes, 21,975. The most numerous of the aborigines are the Kols, 8607; the Gonds, 5663; the Kandhs, 4134; and the Bhuiyas, 3399. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans number 738; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Chasas, 6958; Gaurs, 5506; Gandas, 6572, and other cultivating or inferior castes.

Division into Town and Country.—In 1872 only 3 towns exceeded a population of 1000, and only 12 numbered from 500 to 1000 inhabitants; townships from 200 to 500 inhabitants, 59; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 406.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 1988 square miles, only 600 are (1877) under cultivation, and of the portion lying waste, 580 are returned as cultivable. The one important crop is rice, but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also cultivated. Of the jungle produce, lac deserves mention. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 883 proprietors, of whom 847 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 9151, of whom 6316 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 2835 were tenants-at-will.

Commerce and Trade.—The internal trade of Bámrá has been little developed. In 1872, the persons engaged in commerce amounted only to 158, with 170 shopmen. Besides agriculture, the only industry of importance is weaving, which afforded occupation to 1831 persons. Of the artisans, the 442 blacksmiths formed the most numerous class. Commercial progress, however, cannot be expected until the country is opened up by means of communication. An old road to Calcutta, now fallen into disuse, runs through from west to east. With this exception, there is not a single made road in the State. Nor are there greater facilities for water traffic. It would be possible to float timber down the Bráhmaní (the only important river in the State) to the coast, and so to turn to account the magnificent *sál* forests of Bámra, but for certain rocky obstructions, which render navigation impossible at certain parts of its course. With improved means of transit, the wealth of Bámra in timber and in iron ore may some day become available.

Administration.—Bámra pays a tribute of £35, out of an estimated gross revenue of £600; no military force is maintained. Education is still very backward, and what exists has been created by the efforts of the last few years. In 1872, the persons able to read and write, or under instruction, numbered—under 12 years of age, 55, or 0·6 per cent.; above 12 and not exceeding 20 years of age, 73, or 1·63 per. cent.; exceeding 20 years, 143, or 0·98 per cent. All of these were of the male sex.

Medical Aspects.—According to the Census of 1872, insanity and blindness prevail to an unusual extent in Bámra, the percentage being—insanes, 0·04; blind, 0·13. The deaf-mutes were so numerous as to constitute 0·2 of the population. The percentage of lepers in the State did not exceed 0·05.

Bamsáru.—Pass in Garhwál State, Punjab, over the Jamnotri range, which separates the valleys of the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná). Lat. 30° 56′ N., long. 78° 36′ E.; elevation above the sea, 15,447 feet; summit reaches the limit of perpetual snow.

Banaganapalli. — Estate in Karnul (Kurnool) District, Madras. Lat. 15° 2′ 30″ to 15° 28′ 50″ N., long. 78° 1′ 45″ to 78° 25′ 30″ E.; present area, 275 square miles, though formerly nearly 500; pop. (1876), 45,208, being 7479 Muhammadans (chiefly Sunnis) and 37,729 Hindus, of whom more than half belong to the cultivating and shepherd castes. Bounded by the Koilkantla, Nandial, and Pattikonda *táluks*; it comprises the western half of the basin of the Kunder, and is also watered by the Junver river. The estate contains 63 towns and villages, of which Banaganapalli, the capital, has a population of 8000, and nine others over 1000. Of the whole area only 70 square miles (45,000 acres) are waste, the rest of the estate being under cereals, cotton (of which the cultivation is annually increasing), and indigo. There are no forests, and the waste lands supply pasturage. The trade consists almost entirely of the interchange of local produce, but at the markets, cotton and silk cloths, chintz, and lacquered wares—products of local industry—are sometimes collected for exportation. Eighty years ago, copper mines were worked, and near Banaganapalli there are diamond pits, yielding annually stones to the value of a few pounds. The estate has no railway or first-class road; the few schools are of the most primitive type, and endowed charities do not exist. The annual revenue amounts nominally to £225,000; but of this sum two-thirds are drawn by 17 minor *jágírdárs*, relatives of the Nawáb, and the remainder, after deducting £5341 for expenses of the palace and administration, does not suffice to meet the interest accruing on the debts inherited from his father by the present chief. Owing to the unruly character of the leading *jágírdárs*, the Nawáb is unable to restore his finances by increased taxation. More than half of the whole estate has passed from his hands to other members of his family; but out of the 17 alienations thus existing, 9 might be resumed if the Nawáb exercised his privilege of refusing the right of adoption to the females at present holding the estates. Of the others, 4 are held by courtiers of the Nizám, who consider themselves so far independent that they refuse to pay the road cess, and resent any interference in their affairs. The land revenue is farmed, the villages being assigned by auction to the highest bidder, and the

farmer sub-lets the lands to the cultivators. The tenant therefore holds at will only, and is liable at all times to enhancement of rent, without the option of relinquishing his holding. Historically, the estate has but little interest. It was granted in the 17th century by the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb to Muhammad Beg Khán, son of his Wazír, in whose family it remained for three generations. The chief dying without male heirs, the estate was given by the Nizám (1764) to the ancestor of the present owner. In 1800, the suzerainty was transferred by the Nizám to the British Government, and, in consequence of local disorder, the estate was administered by the Collector of Cuddapah from 1825 to 1848. In the latter year it was restored, the Governor of Madras renewing the previous grants, and conferring larger civil and criminal powers upon the *jágírdár*. The title of Nawáb was bestowed upon the present chief in 1876, on the occasion of the visit of the Prince of Wales to the Presidency.

Banaganapalli.—Chief town in the Banaganapalli estate; situated 250 miles from Madras, and 90 from Bellary. Lat. 15° 15′ N., long. 78° 20′ E.; pop. 8000. As the headquarters of the estate, the Nawáb's courts, jail, and treasury are situated here. The town lies in a plain near the mouth of a gorge, a stream from the hills flowing through its streets. About half a mile distant are the diamond mines, situated in a deposit of *breccia* underlying compact limestone. They would seem to be nearly worked out, for though in the 18th century they yielded large returns, the best stones found between 1800-1850 were valued at £30, and even these were only exceptional. Since 1850, the diamond washers have fallen off greatly in number, and those who continue at the mines procure only a bare subsistence.

Banás Nadí.—River of Sháhabad District, Bengal. At first merely a spill channel from the Són, which it leaves near Beltá village; as it proceeds northwards, it becomes the drainage channel between the Arrah Canal and the Bihiyá branch of the Són Canal system. After passing under the railway between Arrah and Bihiyá, it turns to the east, and finally falls into the Gangí *nadí*. It contains very little water, except during the rains.

Banás.—River of Chutia Nagpur, Bengal. Rises in the range of hills which separates Cháng Bhakár State from Koreá; flows in a westerly direction through Cháng Bhakár until it takes a bend to the north, following the boundary line of the State, which it leaves at its north-west corner, and passes into Rewah. It is a hill stream, with rocky bed and frequent rapids; there is no traffic.

Banás ('*Hope of the Forest*').—A river of Rájputána. Rises (lat. 24° 47′ N., long. 73° 28′ E.) near Kankroli, in Oodeypore (Udaipur), about 3 miles from the old fortress of Kumalgarh; flows south until it meets the Gogunda plateau, when it suddenly turns eastwards, cutting

through the outlying ridges of the Aravalli Hills; farther on it flows north-east, across Northern Oodeypore (Udaipur), collecting the greater part of the drainage of the Oodeypore plateau and the waters flowing from the south-east slopes and hill tracts of the Aravallis. It joins the Chámbal (lat. 25° 54′ N., long. 76° 50′ E.) a little beyond the north-east extremity of Boondee (Bundi) State, after a course of about 300 miles. Chief affluents in Oodeypore—the Berach and the Kothesri from the Aravallis, and the Dhúnd from the Jeypore (Jáipur) country. Where the river strikes through a small picturesque group of hills at Rájmahál, there is some fine scenery, and here its waters are very clear and pure; but though the bed in the upper part of its course is hard and rocky, it abounds in dangerous quicksands lower down.

Banása.—Village in Garhwál State, Punjab; situated on left bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), 7 miles below its source, at confluence of Banása torrent. Lat. 30° 56′ N., long. 78° 27′ E. Picturesquely perched on natural ledge of rock, with other ledges rising above. Hot springs abound in the neighbourhood. Overwhelmed and half destroyed by fall of a precipice in 1816.

Banavar.—*Táluk* in Kadur District, Mysore; enlarged in 1875 by the addition of Kadur *táluk*. Area, 467 square miles; pop. (1871), 76,384; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £11,507, or 5s. per cultivated acre.

Banavar (‘*Arrow-bearing*’?).—Municipal village in Kadur District, Mysore; 30 miles east of Chikmagalur. Lat. 13° 24′ N., long. 76° 14′ E.; pop. (1871), 2110; municipal revenue (1874-75), £64; rate of taxation, 7d. per head. Formerly the capital of a Jain principality, and now the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Bánda.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 24° 53′ 15″ and 25° 55′ N. lat., and between 80° 2′ 45″ and 81° 36′ 15″ E. long. Area, 2908 square miles; with a population, in 1872, of 697,684 souls. Bánda is a District of the Allahabad Division, and is bounded on the north-east and north by the river Jumna (Jamuná); on the west by the river Ken, the District of Hamírpur, and the Native State of Gaurihár; on the south and south-east by the Native States of Panna, Charkhári, and Rewah; and on the east by Allahabad District. Its southern boundary is intersected by outlying portions of the surrounding Native States. The Administrative Headquarters are at the town of Bánda, which is also the largest town in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Bánda consists of a finely varied country, sloping downwards from the Vindhyan range on the south-east to the valley of the Jumna and the Ken on the north and west. The southern or highest portion is composed of the rugged granite hills which form the northward escarpment of the great Central Indian

tableland. These hills are well wooded, and abound in massive boulders, gigantic scars, and deep ravines; their highest points being about 2000 feet above the sea. Their sides are scored by the excavated beds of large mountain torrents, which in the rainy months form the affluents of the Jumna, and in the dry season gradually diminish, until by the month of May their channels are mostly empty. The Ken and the Bágain, however, the most important amongst them, are never quite dry. To the north of this hilly region lies a tract of undulating plains, at first thickly sprinkled with granite boulders, similar to those on the hills, but gradually diminishing in size and numbers as we descend towards the valley of the Jumna. Isolated pyramidal heights, rising like rocky islands from the general level, are found in the portion of this region nearest to the Vindhyan range, and are often crowned by the ruined fortresses of the Chandel or Bundela chieftains. The plain itself, the most fertile portion of the District, is widest at its western extremity, near the town of Bánda, and narrows like a wedge as it runs eastward, till it finally disappears at the base of the Vindhyan Hills. The Jumna valley rises by a series of terraces, broken with ravines, to the level of the tableland above. A large portion of the low-lying plain is marshy, and there are patches of scrub jungle in the neighbourhood of the Jumna. The soil of the low ground is chiefly the black variety, known as *már*, which has a singular power of retaining moisture, and is very fertile. As the tributary rivers are confined within wide and deep-cut channels, they are not liable to overflow their banks; but the Jumna inundates and fertilizes its own immediate valley. The whole District is moderately well wooded. Antelopes, elks, and ravine deer are plentiful; hyenas common; tigers rare. Leopards may occasionally be met with. Snakes are numerous, deaths of human beings and of cattle from their bites being of common occurrence.

History.—Bánda forms one of the Districts included under the general name of Bundelkhand, and its early history is identical with that of the Province, of which a brief *resumé* may here be given. Bundelkhand is said to have been originally inhabited by the Gonds, a tribe of non-Aryan aborigines; but concerning the date or circumstances of the Aryan conquest nothing is accurately known. It fills a considerable place, however, in the mythical history of the heroic age; the name of Bánda itself being derived, according to legend, from the sage Bámdeo, a contemporary of the mighty Ráma Chandra. Many local names in the District are in like manner connected with his companions. The earliest kings whose dynasty has come down to us through coins and inscriptions were the Nágas. Their capital was at Narwár, and they ruled, probably as viceroys to the Guptas of Kanauj, from the commencement of our era till the end of the 2nd century. From that

period till the 8th century, little can be ascertained with regard to the political state of Bundelkhand; but it was apparently independent of the Kanauj government, and formed part of the kingdom of Gwalior. From the 9th to the 14th century, the tract was ruled by the Chandel dynasty, under whom it rose to the highest power and eminence. Their epoch forms the Augustan age of Bundelkhand, and to it all the principal architectural remains in the tract are referred. It was the Chandels who built the strong mountain fortresses of Kálinjar and Ajaigarh, the exquisite temples of Khajuráhu and Mahoba, and the noble artificial lakes of Hamírpur. Though often attacked by the Musalmáns (*e.g.*, by Mahmúd of Ghazní (Ghuznee) in 1023, and more successfully by Kutab-ud-dín in 1196), they maintained their independence until near the beginning of the 14th century. The Chandel monarchy was dissolved about the year 1300, and this part of its dominions was occupied by the Bundelas, a body of Hindu military adventurers, from whom the tract derives its modern name, and whose present rank shows them to have been impure or spurious Rájputs. These hardy southern immigrants infused fresh blood into a country long weakened by the Muhammadan invasions. Owing to their determined opposition, the aggressive Musalmáns did not succeed in subjugating Bundelkhand before the reign of Akbar; and even under that emperor their authority seems to have been little more than nominal. During the whole period of the Mughal dynasty, the Bundela chiefs remained uncertain and rebellious vassals to the court of Delhi. They were always ready to seize upon the family dissensions, so frequent in the house of Akbar, as an opportunity for asserting their independence. Under Champat Rái they long resisted the power of Sháh Jahán, and after his death they rallied round his son, their national hero, Chhatar Sál, who set himself up as the head of a Hindu league, to oppose the proselytizing efforts of Aurangzeb, and never rested until he had made himself practically independent of Delhi. He attained this object, however, through the dangerous aid of the Marhattás, to whom, on his death, about A.D. 1734, he left one-third of his territories, including the present Districts of Lalitpur, Jálaun, and Jhánsi. In 1738, Bájí Ráo, the first of the Peshwas, obtained the supremacy of all Bundelkhand, by treaty with the Rájás. From that period until 1803, the country remained more or less in the power of the Poona throne, though perpetually disturbed by intestine quarrels and predatory border warfare. The intervening half-century was one of great misery and confusion for Bundelkhand, as for the rest of Upper India. Military hordes collected; the hill fastnesses were occupied by the forts of robber chiefs; the villages were plundered and devastated; the commercial and agricultural prosperity, which had grown under the fostering care of the Chandel and Bundela princes, was utterly

crushed. The irrigation works were ruined, and the sugar-presses fell into disuse. Added to all this misery, the mode of collecting the Marhattá revenue was so oppressive that nothing remained to the cultivator beyond the bare means of subsistence. This was the condition of affairs when the British occupation took place. After the battle of Poona in 1802, the treaty of Bassein was concluded with the Peshwa, by which he agreed to cede certain territories for the maintenance of a British force. These territories were afterwards exchanged, by a supplementary treaty of December 1803, for part of the Marhattá dominions in Bundelkhand. An arrangement was also entered into with Rájá Himmat Bahádur, a military adventurer, who held a large part of Bundelkhand under the Peshwa, by which an extension of territory was granted to him as the price of his adherence, and for the maintenance of troops under his command in the service of the British Government. Much opposition was offered by Shamsher Bahádur, the Marhattá Nawáb of Bánda, as well as by the freebooting chiefs, each of whom had to be separately dislodged. But by the close of the year 1804, the country had been sufficiently reduced to permit of its formation into a British District. Of this District, Bánda formed a part until the year 1819, when it was separated under the name of Southern Bundelkhand. The assignments granted to Rájá Himmat Bahádur had been resumed shortly after his death in 1804. The titular rank of Nawáb, with a pension of 4 *lákhs* of rupees, was retained in the family of Shamsher Bahádur. Under British rule, Bánda remained free for fifty years from those greater misfortunes which make up the incidents of Indian history; but its economical condition was far from happy. The impoverishment which it had undergone during the Marhattá rule left it in a miserable state. The people were hopelessly in debt; the land was exhausted by incessant cropping; the wells and other means of irrigation had fallen out of repair, and there was no capital in the District for their renewal. The British fiscal system, though not so oppressive as that of the Marhattás, was severe enough to stand in the way of improvements. In short, the District required, but did not obtain, a long period of light taxation. On the outbreak of the Mutiny in May 1857, the miserable and ignorant inhabitants were easily incited to revolt by the Cawnpore and Allahabad mutineers. The 1st Native Infantry seized on the magazine and public buildings at Bánda, and were joined by the troops of the Nawáb. Until the 14th of June every effort was made by the British residents to retain the town, but on that date it was abandoned. The Nawáb of Bánda then set himself at the head of the movement. The Joint Magistrate was murdered in the palace on the 15th of June. The people through the country districts rose *en masse*, and a period of absolute anarchy followed. The Nawáb attempted to organize a

feeble government, but his claims were disputed by other pretenders, and he was quite unable to hold in check the mob of savage plunderers whom the Mutiny had let loose upon the District. The fort of Kálinjar, however, was held throughout by the British forces, aided by the Rájá of Panná. The town of Bánda was recovered by General Whitlock on the 20th of April 1858. The Nawáb was afterwards permitted to retire with a pension of £3600 a year. Since the Mutiny, the fiscal system has been remodelled, and it is hoped that the new settlement will conduce to the revival of prosperity in Bánda, where the general poverty and apathy still bear witness to the disastrous period of Marhattá misrule.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total population of Bánda at 743,872 souls. In 1865 it had decreased to 724,372 souls, showing a falling off of 19,500, or 2·62 per cent., although the area for the latter Census exceeded that for the former by 13,179 acres. In 1872 the population (excluding non-Asiatics) had further decreased to 697,611 souls, showing an additional falling off of 26,761, or 3·69 per cent. The decrease may be accounted for partly by the Mutiny, but more especially by the poverty of Bundelkhand, which leads the inhabitants to migrate on the slightest pressure of famine or scarcity. A slight falling off is attributed to the departure of the Nawáb of Bánda and other leading families, who supported large bodies of dependants. The population in 1872, amounting to 697,611 souls, resided in 160,962 houses, and 1374 villages, spread over an area of 2908 square miles; density of population, 240 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·5; houses per square mile, 55; persons per house, 4·3. Classified by sex (excluding non-Asiatics), there were 359,765 males and 337,846 females; proportion of males, 51·57 per cent. Classified by age (with the like omission), under 15 years, 133,074 males and 116,615 females—total, 249,689, or 35·79 per cent. of the population; above 15 years, 226,689 males and 221,226 females—total, 447,915, or 64·21 per cent. In religion, the Hindus numbered 657,107 souls, or 94·19 per cent.; the Muhammadans amounted to 40,498, or 5·81 per cent. There were only 6 resident Christians at the date of the Census. The creed of Islám has made no progress since the Mutiny, nor are there any special Muhammadan sects. Neither Christianity nor the Bráhma-Samáj has effected a settlement in the District. No statistics as to the various castes or ethnical divisions are available. The Bráhmans form the most numerous body, and, together with the Rájputs, comprise the mass of the cultivators. The labouring class consists of low-caste Hindus and semi-Hinduized aborigines. Though the Bundelas give their name to the Province, they are not numerous in Bánda. They have or had a reputation for thieving, which has passed into a proverb.

The Census shows 318,263 persons engaged in agriculture, and 351,571 occupied in other pursuits. There are only four towns containing more than 5000 inhabitants — Rájapur, 5165; Mataundh, 5201; Karwi, 6854; and Bánda, 27,573. The urban population thus amounts to 34,793, leaving a rural body of 662,891. The towns, however, show symptoms of steady decay. The District also contains the famous hill fortress of Kálinjar, the stronghold of the Chandel kings. The language in ordinary use is Bundelkhandí, a corrupt form of Hindí; but another dialect, embracing a debased Urdú element, is spoken in many villages.

Agriculture.—Though Bánda is not quite so backward as some other portions of Bundelkhand, yet its condition is far from satisfactory. Out of an area of 1,939,291 acres, 889,570 are cultivated, while 543,279 more are cultivable. The principal produce consists of wheat, maize, gram, and *joár*, a kind of millet. The crops of the District are of two classes — the autumn harvest, for which the sowing takes place from June to August, and the spring harvest, sown in November or December. Of the former, the principal crop in value, though not in acreage, is cotton, occupying an area of 69,667 acres. Hemp and millet are generally sown with it. The chief spring crops are wheat, occupying 134,247 acres; gram, 138,662 acres; and barley, 60,976 acres. Maize covers 126,198 acres. Oil-seeds are also largely grown. Considerable quantities of bamboos are exported. The District has suffered much from the spread of the destructive *káns* grass, which has totally impoverished many villages. The peasantry are deeply in debt, poorly housed, and totally apathetic; the landowners are in very straitened circumstances. The system of cultivation is simple, and in the uplands few spots can be tilled to advantage for more than three years consecutively. Rotation of crops is general. Manure is little used, and irrigation is as yet only performed by labourers and bullocks. A scheme is in progress, however, for irrigating the country between the Ken and the Bágain, by means of canals drawn from the former river, which would supply water to about 60,000 acres. The average out-turn and value of crops is as follows:—Wheat, 6 cwts. 22 lbs. per acre, worth £1, 2s.; maize, 5 cwts. 18 lbs. per acre, worth £1; and cotton, 2 cwts. per acre, worth £1, 15s. 10d. The tenures of land are numerous and complicated, but most of them proceed on a plan of joint proprietorship, the coparceners cultivating in common, and the revenue being assessed among them by a rate. As the land has to lie fallow for periods of different duration, the right of occupancy extends rather to similar holdings than to actual plots. The system of separate large ownerships is on the increase. The rates of rent are high, varying from 4s. 7½d. an acre for the poorest soils, to 15s. an acre for the best. Many cultivators have relinquished their holdings through inability to

pay the rent, owing to the prevalence of the *káns* grass. Labourers engaged by the year receive as wages 16s. per annum, eked out by an allowance of grain from June to October, and a present of clothing at the end of the engagement. Monthly labourers, during the busy season, obtain 4s. a month, besides a daily allowance of ½ lb. of bread. Ordinary day-labourers sometimes receive as little as one *ánná* (1½d.) per diem, without further allowance. Women and children take part in even the most arduous field work. Wages have been on the increase since 1850, but as the price of grain has risen in more than the same proportion, the benefit to the labourer is only apparent. Coolies received from 1¾d. to 2¼d. a day in 1850; from 3d. to 3¾d. in 1871: smiths, from 3d. to 4½d. in 1850; from 4½d. to 7½d. in 1871: bricklayers, from 3¾d. to 6d. in 1850; from 4½d. to 7½d. in 1871: and carpenters, from 3d. to 6d. at the former date; from 4½d. to 7½d. at the latter. At the same time, prices ruled as follows:—Common rice, in 1850, 4s. 6d. per cwt.; in 1871, 8s. per cwt.: Indian corn, in 1850, 8¼d. per cwt.; in 1871, 4s. 6d. per cwt.: millet (*bájrá*), in 1850, 10¼d. per cwt.; in 1871, 4s. 10½d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District of Bánda is specially exposed to the ravages of insects, of which no less than 16 destructive species are enumerated. They attack the wheat, rice, gram, and other grains, and one in particular affects the cotton. Some of them destroy as much as three-fourths of the crops. Floods are not serious, and in most cases prove beneficial. The District suffers much from drought, which was the main cause of the famine of 1869. Prices began to rise in April, and continued high till the end of the year. In May, as many as 10,943 persons were employed daily upon relief works. By the end of June, the rains set in, and prevented the necessity for further relief. The maximum price of gram in 1869 was 10 *sers* for the rupee, or 11s. 2½d. per cwt. The point at which famine rates are reached varies in the different Subdivisions (*parganás*). In Bánda *parganá*, where the population is densest, relief should be given when wheat sells at 22s. 4d. per cwt., and gram at 14s. per cwt. Elsewhere, famine rates are reached with wheat and gram at just half those prices. The communications of the District with the Doáb are probably sufficient to avert the extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade.—Bánda being a poor agricultural District, has little trade. The Jumna is its main artery, and Chilla, on that river, is the port of entry. The Bánda cotton is sufficiently well known in commerce to be called by its prefix as a trade name. The other principal exports are flax, gram, maize, wheat, and other grains. The chief imports are rice, sugar, and tobacco. The traffic on the Ken is small, owing to the shrinking of the river in the dry season. Manufactured articles are, for the most part, sold at the country fairs, none of which,

however, are of any great importance. Coarse cotton cloth and copper utensils are made in the District for home use. Polished pebbles, found in the Ken, and cut into knife handles, brooches, seal-rings, and other ornamental articles, are exported in considerable quantities. There are several quarries in the southern hill country, which export durable sandstone for ornamental architecture, and other stone for metalling roads and for railway purposes. Iron is also found near Kálinjar, and worked by companies of blacksmiths. The Jubbulpore (Jabalpur) branch of the East Indian Railway has a length of about 36 miles in the District, with three stations at Bargarh, Mánikpur, and Márkundi. Mánikpur is connected with the town of Bánda by a road of 59¼ miles long; but as only a small portion is metalled, and as it is often impassable for goods during the rainy season, traffic proceeds chiefly by the well-metalled road to Chilla (48 miles) and thence across the Jumna to Fatehpur station on the East Indian main line. There are 233 miles of first-class roads, 90 of second class, and 322 of the third and fourth classes. All of them, however, except that from Bánda to Chilla, need improvement. No institutions of any importance exist, and there are no newspapers or printing-presses in the District.

Administration.—The District suffered much in the earlier part of the century from over-taxation. Under the Marhattá Government, the State demand amounted to the whole possible out-turn of each village. On the first British Settlement of the whole District, in 1806, the land revenue amounted to £130,305, and in 1814 to £146,454. These assessments were not considered exorbitant. In 1815, the land revenue was raised to £192,122, and again, in 1819, to £203,650. This demand was met, but only by payments out of capital; and the result was soon seen in a general decrease of prosperity. In 1825, the assessment was reduced to £187,890; but the effects of the previous excessive demands, the spread of the *káns* weed, and a series of bad harvests, combined to impoverish Bánda. From that period to the Mutiny, the assessments, in spite of many fluctuations, were generally somewhat heavier than the District could bear. On the re-occupation after the Mutiny, it was necessary to make a considerable reduction, which on the whole has worked well; and, with the exception of the disastrous year 1868-69, while the revenue has steadily increased, the unrealized balances have been decreasing. The land assessment in 1870-71 amounted to £130,482, of which £130,476 were collected. The total revenue in that year was £167,488. Of this the principal items, exclusive of land tax, are tribute, excise, stamps, and income tax. As Bánda forms a portion of the Allahabad Division, it is administered under the Regulation system organized in 1803. The *Munsif* of Bánda has civil jurisdiction over the western portion; the remainder is under the jurisdiction of the Subordinate Judge. There

are 13 magisterial and 16 civil courts. The District contains 24 police stations and 11 outposts. The regular police amount to 620 men, maintained at a cost of £8920, chiefly from imperial funds. The proportion of police to the area is 1 in 4·68 square miles; to the population, 1 in 1124 inhabitants. There are also 2552 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), or 1 to every 273 persons. In 1871 there were 1210 convictions for crimes of all kinds. The District contains only one jail, the average number of prisoners in which was 555 in 1850, 121 in 1860, and 292 in 1870, or ·076, ·016, and ·040 of the population, respectively. Education is advancing slowly. In 1860, there were 3006 children under instruction; in 1870 the total had increased to 4966. The number of schools in 1871 was 214, chiefly elementary, and the sum expended on education was £2194. The District contains one administrative Subdivision, Karwi. There are eight Fiscal Divisions (*parganás*), containing 1474 estates, owned by 2967 registered proprietors or coparceners. Each estate contributes to the land revenue an average of £88, 10s. 5d., and each proprietor, an average of £43, 19s. 6¾d. The District contains but one municipality, that of Bánda. In 1872 the gross revenue amounted to £2055, and the expenditure to £1649. The incidence of the municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 5¾d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The cold season in Bánda is less intense than that of the neighbouring Districts, frost being very rare. The hot weather sets in about the middle of March, and the crops are cut by April. The atmosphere is distinguished by its clearness, fog and dust being almost unknown. The beautiful phenomenon of the mirage is often observed. On the other hand, this purity of the air contributes to the heat, and many deaths occur from exposure to the sun. Mean temperature — January, 63·4°; February, 61·9°; March, 82·5°; April, 94°; May, 96°; June, 94·7°; July, 90·6°; August, 86·2°; September, 84·5°; October, 83°; November, 75°; December, 63·6°. The average yearly rainfall was 63·3 inches in 1867-68; 22·4 in 1868-69; 43·2 in 1869-70; and 51·3 in 1870-71. The climate is healthy for natives, but produces fever and ague among the Europeans. The only endemic disease is malarial fever, which becomes epidemic from August to November. More than two-thirds of the deaths are due to this cause; of other diseases, complaints of the bowels are most fatal. As many as 265 deaths from snake-bites and wild animals were recorded in 1871. Cattle-disease is occasionally prevalent, but not to any great extent.

Bánda.—*Tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a level lowland, intersected by the river Ken. Area, 400 square miles, of which 235 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 108,771 souls; land revenue, £22,830; total revenue, £23,330; rental paid by cultivators, £35,511; incidence of Government revenue, 1s. 9⅝d. per acre.

Bánda.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 28′ 20″ N., long. 80° 22′ 15″ E.; area, 569 acres; pop. (1872), 27,746 souls, comprising 20,528 Hindus and 7218 Muhammadans. Stands on an undulating plain, 1 mile east of right bank of Ken river; distant 95 miles south-west from Allahabad, 190 miles south-east from Agra, and 560 miles north-west from Calcutta. Modern town, deriving its first importance from the residence of the Nawáb of Bánda, and later on from its rising position as a cotton mart. After the removal of the Nawáb in 1858, owing to his disloyalty during the Mutiny (see BANDA DISTRICT), the town began to decline, while the growth of Rájapur as a rival cotton emporium has largely deprived Bánda of its principal trade. The population has accordingly decreased from 42,411 souls in 1853 to 27,746 souls in 1872. Straggling and ill-built, but with clean, wide streets. Contains 66 mosques, 161 Hindu temples, and 5 Jain temples, some of which possess fair architectural merit; *tahsíli*, court-house, jail, dispensary, school-house, church. The Nawáb's palace has been partly demolished, partly converted into dwelling-houses. Ruins of palace built by Ajaigarh Rájás; tomb of Gumán Sinh, Rájá of Jaitpur, in good preservation; remains of Bhúragarh fort beyond the Ken, stormed by the British forces in 1804. Cantonments one mile from the town, on the Fatehpur road. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2637; from taxes, £1874, or 1s. 4⅛d. per head of population (27,805) within municipal limits.

Bánda.—*Tahsíl* in Saugor (Ságar) District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 53′ and 24° 26′ N. lat., and between 78° 42′ 45″ and 79° 17′ 45″ E. long.; pop. (1872), 71,683; area, 701 square miles, of which 154 are cultivated and 234 returned as cultivable. Five square miles are reserved under the Forest Department. Land revenue, £4757; total revenue, £4996; rental paid by cultivators, £10,469.

Bandaján.—Pass in Kunawár tract of Kashmir State, Punjab, over a range of the Himálayas, covered with an unbroken sheet of perpetual snow. Lat. (summit) 31° 22′ N., long. 78° 4′ E.; elevation above the sea, 14,854 feet.

Bandar (*Bandwar*).—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras. Houses, 32,661; pop. (1871), 164,525, thus classified according to religion—Hindus, 156,053 (including Sivaites 49,152, Vaishnavs 98,969, and Lingáyats 6685); Muhammadans, 8140 (including Sunis 6503, Shiás 1464); Christians, 321. Chief town, MASULIPATAM, or Bandar.

Bandar.—Town in Kistna District, Madras.—*See* MASULIPATAM.

Bandárban.—On the Sangu river, the principal village of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal, and the residence of the Poáng Rájá (the Bohmong). Lat. 22° 12′ 30″ N., long. 92° 16′ 30″ E.; pop. about 3000. There is a permanent market here, at which considerable traffic is carried

on. The hillmen bring down for sale timber (either rough or hewn into boats), cotton, bamboos, rattans, thatching-grass, sesamum, mustard, india-rubber, and occasionally small quantities of ivory and wax. They buy rice, salt, spices, dried fish, tobacco, cattle, piece-goods, trinkets, etc. The most interesting building in the village is a Buddhist temple, to which the people resort in large numbers at the time of their festival in May. An attempt to establish a Government school failed in 1871, as the people would not send their children to it.

Bandarmalanka (*Bandárulanka*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 20′ N., long. 82° 1′ E.; houses, 455; pop. (1871), 2367. Situated 18 miles east of Narsapúr, on the Vashishta Vamalyen, or eastern mouth of the Godávari. One of the three earliest English settlements in the delta of that river. A factory established here early in the 18th century was shortly afterwards abandoned.

Bandel.—A small village on the bank of the river Húglí, about a mile above Húglí town, in Bengal. Lat. 22° 55′ N., long. 88° 26′ E. Contains a Roman Catholic monastery, said to be the oldest Christian church in Bengal. A stone over the gateway bears the date 1599, but the original church founded in that year was burnt during the siege of Húglí by the Mughals in 1632, the images and pictures which it contained being destroyed by the command of the Emperor of Delhi. The present building was erected shortly afterwards, and the Emperor, on the intercession of one of the priests, who was taken prisoner to Agra, made a grant of 777 *bighás* (about 250 acres) of land rent-free to the monastery. In its early days, the Portuguese built a fort opposite it for its defence; and towards the close of last century there were, in addition to the monastery, a nunnery, a boarding school, and a college of Jesuits. At present (1876), the establishment consists of a very small Portuguese mission. At the festival of the Novena, celebrated in November, a large number of Roman Catholics resort to the place.

Bandipallam (*Vannárapaláyam*).—Hill and stream in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 11° 43′ 15″ N., long. 79° 48′ E. A strategical point of importance in the Anglo-French campaigns of 1750 to 1780.

Bandora (*Wándren*).—Town in Tanna District, Bombay; situated at the southern extremity of Salsette, at the point where that island is connected with the island of Bombay by a causeway and arched stone bridge; 9 miles north of Bombay. Lat. 19° 3′ 5″ N., long. 72° 52′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 7227; average annual value of trade at the port of Bandora for 5 years ending 1873-74—exports £2138, imports £7505. The town has a post office, a dispensary, and a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Since the opening of railway communication, Bandora has become a favourite place of resort for the citizens of Bombay.

Banga.—Municipality in Jullundur (Jalandhar) District, Punjab; 22

miles east of Jullundur (Jalandhar). Lat. 31° 11′ 15″ N., long. 76° 2 E.; pop. (1868), 4518 souls, comprising 3687 Hindus and 831 Muhammadans. Local commercial centre; large trade in sugar; manufacture of cotton cloth. Municipal income in 1875-76, £181; incidence of revenue, 9½d. per head of population (4508) within municipal limits.

Bangáhal.—Valley in Kángra District, Punjab, forming the link between Kángra Proper and the outlying dependency of Kullu. Lat. 32° 18′ to 32° 29′ N., long. 76° 49′ to 76° 55′ E. Consists of two mountain glens, divided from one another by the Dháola Dhár range. The northern half, known as Bará Bangáhal, contains the head-waters of the Ravi, which issues already a considerable river into the Native State of Chamba. Area of Bará Bangáhal, 290 square miles; elevation of lowest point, 8500 feet above the sea; contains only one village, which is liable to be swept away by avalanches; peaks above reach 20,000 feet, covered with glaciers and perpetual snow. The southern half, known as Chhotá Bangáhal, is again divided into two parts by a branch range 10,000 feet in height; its eastern fork contains the head-waters of the Ul river, and some eighteen small villages, inhabited by Kanets and Dághis. The western glen does not differ in any material respect from the general aspect of the Kángra District.

Bangáli.—River of North Bengal; rises in Rangpur, flows thence through a marshy tract which it drains by means of deep *kháls*, or water-channels, into Bográ District. In this District, after receiving the waters of the Manás, it falls into the Halhaliá river, which ultimately joins the Phuljhur.

Bangalore (*Bengaluru*).—The District of Bangalore forms the southern portion of the Nundydroog (Nandidrúg) Division in Mysore State. It lies between 12° 15′ and 13° 57′ N. lat., and between 77° 9′ and 78° 38′ E. long., being bordered on the south by the Madras Districts of Coimbatore and Salem. It contains an estimated area of 2914 square miles; and the Census of 1871 returned a total population of 828,354 souls. The civil and military headquarters are at the town of BANGALORE (*q.v.*), which is also the administrative capital of the State.

Physical Aspects.—The main portion of the District consists of the valley of the Arkavati river, which joins the Cauvery (Káverí) on the southern frontier; the eastern part is watered by the South Pinakini. Towards the west the country is broken by a succession of rugged hills and deep valleys; the remaining tract, which is open and undulating, forms part of the general tableland of Mysore, attaining at Bangalore town an elevation of 3050 feet above the sea. The low-lying lands are dotted with tanks for irrigation, varying in size from small ponds to considerable lakes, formed by embanking the minor streams. The uplands are often bare, or covered with low scrub jungle. The best known of the hills is the rock-fortress of

Savandrug, which towers to a height of 4024 feet: the sacred hill of Sivaganga is about 500 feet higher. The Arkavati river runs a total course of about 120 miles. During the hot season its sandy bed only contains a thin, trickling stream; but in the rains heavy freshes come down, bearing along large uprooted trees and logs of timber. Its maximum flood discharge is calculated at 50,000 cubic feet of water per second. The prevailing formation is gneiss, disrupted by dikes of trap and porphyritic rocks; adularia, pink felspar, chert, corundum, chalcedony, mica, and hornblende are found; hematite iron ore is abundant, and a nodular limestone yields excellent *chunam*, which bears a high polish. The gneiss rock is extensively quarried for building purposes, and supplies solid columns 35 feet long. Potter's clay is utilized by the native workmen; and various kinds of kaolinitic clay exist, specimens of which have been favourably reported upon in England. The prevailing soil is the *kempu*, a loam of great fertility, varying in colour from a light red to a deep chocolate; the darker sorts are supposed to be caused by the weathering down of the trap rocks. The decomposed gneiss gives the *saulu* earth, grey, sandy, and sterile soils, and the kaolinitic clays. Low jungle abounds in most parts of the District. The demand for fuel created by the railway, and the increasing consumption at Bangalore town, have led to the formation of large wood plantations. State forests cover an area of about 32 square miles. Avenues have been planted along all the public roads, and ornamental trees have recently been introduced into the station of Bangalore with most picturesque results. Wild animals are not so abundant as in the mountainous tracts bordered by the Western Ghats.

History.—The tract now known as Bangalore District has often figured prominently in the annals of Southern India. The little town of Kankanhalli has been identified with the Konkanapura of the Buddhist pilgrim, Hiouen Thsang, who traversed India in the 7th century A.D. The earliest local legends are associated with the ruins of Nandagudi and Málur; but authentic history begins with the Chera dynasty, who are related to have ruled over the greater part of Southern India after the commencement of the Christian era. At least two sovereigns of this line are known to have fixed their residence at Málur or Muganda-patna. The Cheras were succeeded in about 900 A.D. by the Cholas, who were shortly afterwards overthrown in their turn by the Ballals. Vira Ballála, who reigned *circa* 1191 to 1211 A.D., is regarded as the founder of Bangalore town. The Ballal dynasty was destroyed by the Muhammadans in 1364; and amid the general disorder a family of Telegu immigrants, known as the Morasu Wokkalu, established themselves as feudatories of the Vijayanagar kings. The chief of the family bore the name of the Gauda. His capital was at Magadi, with

Savandurga as a stronghold in time of danger. The next conqueror to appear on the scene is the Marhattá Sháhjí, the father of Sivají the Great. He had received Bangalore and Kolár, with other neighbouring tracts, as a *jágír* or feudal grant from the Muhammadan prince of Bijápur. He made Bangalore his residence, and his government extended over the whole of 'Carnatic Bijápur.' Like his more illustrious son, Sháhjí found his opportunity in playing off against one another the rival Musalmán kingdoms of Delhi, Bijápur, and Ahmednagar, by which means he was enabled to establish his independence in the remote and fertile Principality of Tanjoré. On his death, in 1664, the inheritance was disputed between his two sons, Sivají and Venkojí or Ekojí; but Sivají finally withdrew to his native hills near Poona, leaving his brother in undisputed possession of the southern dominions of Sháhjí. Meanwhile the Wadeyars of Mysore, the ancestors of the existing royal family, were rising to power. In 1610 they had gained possession of Seringapatam, and in 1654 the Gauda chief of Magadi was rendered tributary to them. The distant authority of Venkojí, who had not inherited the military instincts of his family, appears to have been merely nominal; and in 1687 he offered to sell his rights over Bangalore to the more warlike Rájá of Mysore for three *lákhs* of rupees (£30,000). This transaction was interrupted by the arrival of Kásim Khán, a general of Aurangzeb, who occupied the fortress for a few days, but ultimately consented to hand it over to the Mysore Rájá on the same terms that had been offered by Venkojí. Thus, in July 1687, Bangalore became a part of the kingdom of Mysore, but the entire District was not subjected till sixty years later. The representatives of the Gauda line still lingered at Magadi, and retained possession of the fortress of Savandurga, while another member of the same family ruled at Devanhalli. In 1728, Magadi and Savandurga were taken, and Devanhalli fell in 1749. It was in the siege of the latter town that Haidar Alí first distinguished himself as a volunteer horseman in the Mysore service, and it was at the same spot that his son and successor, Tippu, was afterwards born. In reward for his valour, Haidar Alí was presented in 1758 with the fort and District of Bangalore, which thus formed the original nucleus of his wide empire; and both Bangalore and Devanhalli were always natural objects of solicitude to himself and his son. In 1791, Bangalore was captured from Tippu by the British under Lord Cornwallis, without much opposition; the other strong places surrendered, and the rock-fortress of Savandurga was stormed after five days' bombardment. On the capture of Seringapatam and death of Tippu, in 1799, the District was included by the treaty of Seringapatam within the territory of the restored Hindu Rájá of Mysore. In 1811, owing to the excessive unhealthiness of Seringapatam, the British troops were removed to the town of Bangalore, which has henceforth continued to

be the administrative capital of the State, though the Rájá still resides at Mysore. Under the Native government, Bangalore and Kolár Districts constituted the *faujdári* of Bangalore, which was subsequently termed the Bangalore Division until the formation of the Nundydroog (Nandidrúg) Division in 1863, when the name of Bangalore was confined to the District.

Population.—A *khána sumári*, or house enumeration of the people, in 1853-54 returned a population of 618,506 souls. The regular Census of 1871 showed the numbers to be 828,354, giving an increase of nearly 40 per cent. in the interval of 18 years, if the earlier figures can be trusted. The area of the District is estimated at 2914 square miles, which yields an average of 284·3 persons per square mile, a higher rate than in any other District of Mysore. Classified according to sex, there are 414,543 males and 413,811 females; proportion of males, 50·04 per cent. According to age, under 12 years 142,749 boys and 141,873 girls; total, 284,622, or 34 per cent. of the population. The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy, but it may be mentioned that 148,477 persons are returned as connected with agriculture, and 51,492 with manufacture and arts. The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 756,599, or 91·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 53,485, or 6·5 per cent.; Jains, 642, or ·08 per cent.; Christians, 17,613, or 2·1 per cent.; and 15 'others.' The Hindus are further subdivided, according to the two great sects, into worshippers of Vishnu (410,013) and worshippers of Siva (346,586). The Bráhmans number 28,642, chiefly belonging to the Smarta sect; the claimants to the rank of Kshattriyas are returned at 13,887, among whom the Marhattás number 9241; the Vaisiyas are represented by 10,765, the Komatis numbering 5642, and the Nagartas 4888. Of inferior castes the most numerous is the Wokliga (222,653), who are agricultural labourers; the Lingayats (36,430) have always been very influential in this part of the country; the Kuruba caste of shepherds numbers 46,167; the Banajiga, traders, 29,896; the Tiglars, market gardeners, 28,780; the out-castes are returned at 140,573; the wandering tribes, 12,036; the wild tribes, 1738; and the Coorgs, 2. In Bangalore town, 14 persons, including 3 women, entered themselves as adherents of the Bráhma Samáj, but the real number is believed to be greater; and at the same place there is one Pársí. The Musalmáns, as might be anticipated, muster strongest in the *táluk* of Bangalore. The great majority are returned as Deccani Muhammadans, and there are only 126 Wahábís. Out of the total of 17,613 Christians, 15,294 are found in the town of Bangalore, where, apart from the strength of the garrison, there are many European pensioned soldiers. The Europeans altogether number 4115, and the Eurasians 2444, leaving 11,054 for the native converts. According to another principle of

division, there are 5761 Protestants, 11,777 Roman Catholics, and 75 not stated.

The District contains 2544 primary (*asali*) populated towns and villages, with 3800 houses of the better class, or over £50 in value, and 172,821 houses of the inferior sort. As compared with the area and the population, these figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, ·87; houses per square mile, 61; persons per village, 326; persons per house, 4·69. The town and cantonments of Bangalore, which are fully described in the following article, cover an area of nearly 14 square miles, and contain a total population of 142,513 souls. The following five towns, also, each contain more than 5000 inhabitants:—DOD-BALLAPUR, 7449; CHANNAPATNA, 7101; ANEKAL, 6612; DEVANHALLI, 5571; and CLOSEPET, 5460. Including Bangalore town, there are fourteen municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal revenue in 1874-75 of £18,767, of which amount Bangalore itself is credited with £18,190. The celebrated rock-fortress of Savandurga and the yet higher hill of Sivaganga, a frequented place of pilgrimage, are both situated in the north-west of the District.

Agriculture.—The principal cultivation of the District consists of 'dry' crops, rice being comparatively neglected. The great food staple is *rágí* (Cynosurus corocanus), which also furnishes the necessary fodder for the cattle. Various millets and pulses are grown, and a little wheat. Rice is chiefly sown in the low-lying areas beneath large tanks, and in the neighbourhood of wells; but the out-turn is somewhat uncertain, and the growing crop is liable to blight. The chief oil-seeds raised are *gingelli* (Sesamum orientale) and the castor-oil plant. Mulberry cultivation for the support of silkworms has much declined in recent years. Opium and poppy are cultivated in certain tracts. The most valuable of the 'wet' crops is sugar-cane, which requires to be well cared for and highly manured. Vegetables, both of indigenous and European sorts, are largely grown for the markets of Bangalore and Madras; and the example of the Lál Bágh in Bangalore town has led to the introduction of many flowering plants from England. The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate:—Area under rice, 47,102 acres; wheat, 199; other food grains, 346,810; oil-seeds, 27,048; sugar-cane, 1766; opium, 73; tobacco, 945; vegetables, 4883; mulberry, 5954; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 7553 acres. The agricultural stock is returned at 16,554 carts, and 73,658 ploughs; the number of tanks at 3430. The number of domestic animals is estimated as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 413,994; horses, 1267; ponies, 2983; donkeys, 11,323; sheep and goats, 251,848; pigs, 1396. Elephants and camels are only kept by the Commissariat Department. A few horses are bred by the *silladárs* from country mares and Government stallions,

but the majority are imported. The cattle are of an excellent breed, and the rearing of bulls for sale forms a favourite occupation of well-to-do *rayats*. Buffaloes are not much used for ploughing. Sheep and goats thrive well; the wool, however, is of a coarse description, and only used for the manufacture of native blankets and horse rugs. An attempt made by Government to introduce the merino breed of sheep has not proved successful.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufacture of cotton cloths and coarse woollen blankets, or *kamblis*, is a common industry in all parts of the District. The finer sorts of cloth are woven with some admixture of silk, and with silk borders. The production of raw silk is confined to the Muhammadan section of the community, and has much declined in recent years owing to epidemic diseases among the indigenous worms. In 1866 an Italian gentleman imported a superior breed of worms from Japan, and established a large filature at the town of Kengeri; but the enterprise failed from the same cause. Silk cloth of durable texture and costly patterns is woven by the *patvegárs* of Bangalore, and sold by weight at the rate of 8s. to 10s. a *tolá*. Other specialties are the lacquered ware, glass ornaments, and steel wire for musical instruments made at Channapatna. In the Magadi *táluk* a good deal of iron is worked in the native fashion, and some steel. The handicrafts of Bangalore town are those necessarily found in a great city. Carpet-making is carried on with great success in the central jail, and the carpets there made, after Persian and Turkish designs, sell in Europe at prices ranging from £1, 4s. per square yard. The commerce of the District, which is carried on both with the east and west coasts, centres at the busy *bázár* of the native quarter of Bangalore. The other principal marts of trade are CHANNAPATNA, DOD-BALLAPUR, SARJAPUR, VADAGENHALLI, and TYAMAGONDAL. A cattle fair held annually at Huskur, a village in the Anekal *táluk*, is attended by about 3000 persons, and 10,000 bullocks are brought for sale. The Bangalore branch of the Madras Railway runs through the east of the District for about 20 miles, with its terminus at Bangalore town. There are 176 miles of imperial roads in the District, maintained at an annual cost of £3766, and 253 miles of local roads, which cost £1386.

Administration.—In the year 1873-74, the total revenue of Bangalore District, excluding police, education, and public works, amounted to £171,046. The chief items were—Land revenue, £93,619; *ábkári* or excise, £43,569; law and justice, £10,967. The District is subdivided into 9 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 75 *hublís* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71 the number of separate estates was 932, owned by 3651 registered proprietors or coparceners. During 1874 the average daily prison population of the central jail was 735·84, and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 39·58; total, 775·42, of whom 27·74 were females.

These figures show 1 person in jail for every 1069 of the District population; but it must be recollected that the central jail contains many long-term convicts from the entire State of Mysore. In the same year, the District police force consisted of 1 superior officer, 125 subordinate officers, and 494 constables; the town and cantonment police of 1 superintendent, 4 superior officers, 86 subordinate officers, and 365 constables; making a total of 1074 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £13,345, of which £3156 was paid from local sources. According to these figures, there is 1 policeman to every 1·7 square miles of the District area, or to every 771 of the population; while the cost averages £4, 11s. 1d. per square mile, and 4d. per head of population. The number of schools in 1874 aided and inspected by Government was 440, attended by 14,985 scholars, being 1 school to every 6·61 square miles, and 18 scholars to every thousand of the population. In addition, there were 240 unaided indigenous schools, with 4387 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bangalore town and the surrounding country is noted for its healthiness, but in the hilly jungles towards the west and south malarious fever is endemic. The mean annual temperature is 76·2°, the extreme range in any single year having been 42°. The average annual rainfall is 36 inches, distributed over about 90 days. The heaviest fall generally occurs during the prevalence of the north-east monsoon in October; from December to May there is usually little or no rain. The most prevalent disease is malarious fever, frequently attended with enlargement of the spleen; it is most common at the beginning and close of the monsoons. Cholera occasionally appears in an epidemic form, attributed to importation from Madras. Small-pox is always more or less prevalent during the hot season and at the commencement of the rains, though vaccination is now systematically conducted in every *táluk.* Pneumonia in natives and congestion of the lungs in Europeans are common. In recent years there have been some cases of typhoid fever, confined to the European population. On the other hand, the severe but not fatal epidemic of dengue fever in 1872 was almost entirely limited to the natives. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that out of a total number of 12,058 deaths reported in 1872, 5800 were assigned to fevers, 1247 to small-pox, 838 to bowel complaints, 15 to cholera, 53 to suicide, and 41 to snake-bite or wild animals. There are two charitable establishments at Bangalore for the relief of the sick—the Bowring Civil Hospital and the *Pét* Dispensary. In 1874 a total of 1516 in-patients were treated at the hospital, and the number of deaths was 178, or 117·41 per thousand; the out-patients numbered 2144. The dispensary has no in-patient department; the number of out-patients in 1874 was 21,032.

Bangalore City (*Bengaluru:* literally, 'Town of *bengalu*'—a kind of bean).—The chief town of the District and *táluk* of the same name, and the capital of the State of Mysore, is situated in 12° 57′ 37″ N. lat., and 77° 36′ 56″ E. long., 71 miles north-east of Seringapatam, and 216 miles by rail west of Madras. The city is divided into two parts—the *pét*, or old native quarter, including the fort; and the cantonments. The total area is 13½ square miles, and the population, according to the Census of 1871, amounts to 142,513 souls.

General Appearance.—The city of Bangalore stands in the centre of the Mysore tableland, about 3000 feet above the sea. The general level is only broken by a few slight elevations, and the plain is interspersed with several large tanks. The fort lies on the extreme south-west, north of which is the *pét*, or old native quarter; the cantonments stretch away towards the north-east, terminating in the new native quarter of the cantonment *bázár*. Beyond this again is the suburb of St. John's Hill, or Cleveland Town, dotted with the little cottages of a large number of European pensioned soldiers, which, with the spire of its parish church, presents somewhat the appearance of an English village. The large open space between the two native quarters contains the race-course, the Cubbon Park, and the parade ground. Here also are situated the chief Government offices, and the houses of the European residents, each encircled by its own green compound. The railway station is in the extreme north, and in the opposite direction, beyond the fort, is the Lál Bágh or 'horticultural gardens.' The fort, which is oval in shape, is said to have been originally built in 1537 with mud walls by a local chieftain. The present fortifications of stone were constructed by Haidar Alí in 1761. When the British assumed the direct administration of Mysore in 1831, the principal departments of Government found accommodation in the palace inside the fort. In 1868, new offices were erected in the cantonments; and the old palace, a large two-storied building of mud, has been suffered to fall into decay. The arsenal still remains within the fort, but it has been proposed to remove this also, and to demolish the fortifications. The *pét*, or old native quarter, is very densely populated; there are 12,647 houses, with 60,703 inhabitants, in an area of 2⅓ square miles. Until the last few years the *pét* was surrounded with a deep ditch and a thick-set hedge, a memorial from the times of Marhattá inroad. The streets are for the most part narrow and irregularly built, but there are not a few handsome houses owned by wealthy merchants. The course of trade is brisk, especially in the grain and cotton markets; and altogether the *pét* presents the appearance of a prosperous oriental city. The following are the chief buildings scattered over the wide area known as the cantonments, which cover 11¼ square miles, with a population of 81,810 persons.

The Government House, the residence of the Chief Commissioner of Mysore, and the fine range of new public offices, rise amid the wooded grounds of Cubbon Park to the west of the parade ground. The public offices, erected at a cost of £50,000, occupy a long two-storied building, in the Grecian style of architecture; the lower storey is all of stone, surrounded with verandahs. The central jail covers a large space; it is built on the radiating principle, with workshops for many trades, and is surrounded by grounds kept under cultivation by the prisoners. The HIGH SCHOOL (now the CENTRAL COLLEGE) contains a hall with a roof supported by light monolithic columns, 35 feet high, quarried in the neighbourhood. In the extreme north of the town a handsome palace of hewn stone is now in course of erection for the Mahárájá. There are altogether eight churches of the different Christian sects, and many Hindu temples and Muhammadan mosques. Bangalore is the headquarters of the Mysore Division of the Madras army, and contains separate barracks for artillery, cavalry, and infantry, as well as Sepoy lines. The Lál Bágh, about a mile east of the fort, is a beautiful pleasure garden, said to have been first laid out in the time of Haidar Alí. It is now under the charge of a European superintendent from Kew, and contains a rare collection of tropical and sub-tropical plants. Irrigation is supplied from a neighbouring tank. Periodical flower and fruit shows are held, and the weekly gathering at the band-stand attracts large numbers both of Europeans and natives.

History.—Bangalore is not an ancient city, though it figures prominently as a place of military importance in the recent history of Mysore. The fort is said to have been founded in 1537 by Kempe Gauda, the ancestor of a line of local chieftains whose chief residence was at Magadi, with Savandurga as their hill fortress. In 1638, Bangalore was captured by Rand-ullá Khán, the general of the Adil Sháhí Prince of Bijápur, the representative at that time of the Muhammadan power in the Deccan (Dakshin). The first Bijápur deputy-governor of these southern conquests was the Marhattá Sháhjí, father of the more celebrated Sivají. The fort of Bangalore was included in the *jágír* granted to Sháhjí, in order to attach him to the cause of Bijápur. This *jágír* descended to his degenerate son Venkojí, or Ekojí, who preferred the security of his distant throne at Tanjore, and consented to sell Bangalore to the Hindu Wadeyar of Mysore, who was then rising to power. For a few days the fort was occupied by Kásím Khán, the general of the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb, who finally surrendered it to the Mysore Rájá for £30,000, the sum which had originally been agreed upon with Venkojí. This transfer took place in 1687. Bangalore is not again mentioned in history until 1758, when the fort and surrounding District were conferred as a *jágír* upon Haidar Alí, in consideration of his

military services to the Rájá of Mysore against the Marhattás. During the period when Haidar was conspiring against his Hindu master with varying success, Bangalore was always his military headquarters, and a safe retreat in time of danger. In 1761, the first year of his independence, he commenced the enlargement of the fort, and built the existing walls and towers of stone. During his reign, and also during that of his son Tippu, though Seringapatam was the recognised capital, the palace inside the fort of Bangalore was often occupied by the royal harem. In 1791, in the course of what is known as the third Mysore war, Bangalore was besieged by the British army, led by Lord Cornwallis in person. Despite the active opposition of Tippu Sultán, who kept the open field, the *pét* or native town was entered on the 7th March, and on the 21st of the same month the fort was taken by assault. The storming party advanced at midnight, beneath a bright moon; the garrison offered a respectable resistance, and their losses were severe. On the fall of Seringapatam and the death of Tippu Sultán in 1799, the State of Mysore was restored to a descendant of the old line of Hindu Wadeyars, and a British force was stationed at Seringapatam. In 1811, owing to the unhealthiness of that place, Bangalore was selected as the military station; and subsequently, in 1831, when the State was taken under British administration, the civil offices of Government were also placed at Bangalore, which has thus gradually risen to be the acknowledged capital of Mysore, though the residence of the Mahárájá is still at Mysore town. Under British administration Bangalore has greatly prospered both in commercial wealth and the outward marks of civilisation. It now ranks next after Allahabad as the tenth most populous town in British India. The needs of the military garrison have caused large open spaces to be left, which serve both for ornament and recreation. Many handsome public buildings have been erected of the stone quarried in the neighbourhood. A regular water supply is provided from numerous large tanks, and the sewage is conveyed away to be utilized on municipal farms. The healthiness of the climate has permitted a large colony of European pensioners to establish themselves in the suburbs, who confer a peculiarly English aspect upon the social system of the city.

Population.—According to official returns, the population of Bangalore city amounted to 134,628 souls in 1852, and 175,630 souls in 1858. The regular Census of 1871 disclosed a total of 142,513 inhabitants, in an area of 13½ square miles, distributed among 31,301 houses, and showing an average of 10,556 persons per square mile, or 4·5 persons to each house. If the early figures are to be trusted, it would appear that the population has not increased in recent years. Of the total number, 72,236 are males and 70,277 females; proportion of males, 50·6 per cent. The Hindus constitute 74·1 per cent.; the Muhammadans, 15·1

per cent.; and the Christians, 10·8 per cent. of the total population. Among the Hindus are included 224 Jains, 14 professed members of the Bráhma Samáj, and 1 Pársí. The unusual proportion of Christians is partly to be explained by the existence of the European troops in the cantonments, and also of a large colony of married pensioners. As many as 2756 Europeans and 334 Eurasians are classed as 'military officials' in the Census returns. The following table, compiled from the Census Report, shows the population of both the *pét* and the cantonments, classified according to religion and race:—

POPULATION OF BANGALORE (1871).

	Pét.	Cantonments.	Total.
Hindus,	53,464	52,168	105,632
Muhammadans,	6,581	15,006	21,587
Christians—			
Europeans,	2	4,096	4,098
Eurasians,	6	2,411	2,417
Native converts,	650	8,129	8,779
Total Christians,	658	14,636	15,294
Grand total,	60,703	81,810	142,513

Manufactures and Trade.—Most of the trades characteristic of a large city are represented in Bangalore. In former years the production of raw silk was a flourishing industry, confined to the Muhammadan section of the community, but it has now greatly declined owing to continued mortality among the worms. Silks of durable texture and brilliant patterns are still woven by *patvegárs*, and sold by weight at from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per *tolá*. The common country cotton cloth is made in large quantities, the finer kinds with silk borders. Bangalore is noted for its manufacture of carpets. The common drugget with reversible pattern, called *jamkháná*, sells at from 1s. to 2s. 6d. per square yard; the rugs and pile carpets (*ratná kambli*) fetch from 8s. per square yard upwards. The carpets made in the central jail, after Persian and Turkish designs, are in great demand even in the English market. Other specialties are the manufacture of gold and silver lace and of electro-plate, and the tanning of leather. The handicrafts, stimulated by the presence of European civilisation, include printing, bookbinding, lithography, photography, coach-building, and cabinet-making. In both quarters of the town are busy markets. In the *pét*, the public market is situated between the fort and the Mysore gate. But business is conducted everywhere amid the crowded

thoroughfares, especially at open stalls along either side of the Doddapét. The European shops are mostly in the cantonment *bázár*, in which also a commodious and well-kept market-place has recently been laid out. The Mysore branch of the Madras Railway has its terminus at Bangalore. Its total length from the Jollarpét junction is 84 miles, of which 53 lie within the limits of the State of Mysore, with 3 stations exclusive of the terminus. The following are the statistics of traffic for the year 1875-76:—Number of passengers carried, 197,271; receipts from passengers, £17,738; receipts from goods, £32,644; total receipts, £50,382; working expenses, £45,016; net profit, £5366. There were in 1876, altogether 29 joint-stock companies for banking or trade registered in Bangalore city. The largest is the Bangalore Bank, established in 1868 with a capital of £70,000.

Administration.—The municipality of Bangalore consists of two distinct boards, one for the *pét*, and one for the cantonments, both under the president of the municipal commission. The members of the two boards consist of Commissioners nominated by Government to represent the interests of the several wards or divisions, together with six *ex officio* members. The following tables show the municipal balance-sheet for the year 1873-74:—

RECEIPTS OF THE BANGALORE MUNICIPALITY FOR 1873-74.

	Pét.	Cantonments.
Octroi on tobacco, betel-leaf, and areca-nut, .	£2079	£4159
Tax on buildings and lands, ...	1177	2994
Tax on professions and trades, . . .	2466	...
Rents, ...	131	518
Fines, ...	9	72
Pounds, ...	17	147
Miscellaneous, ...	216	4028
Total, ...	£6095	£11,918

EXPENDITURE OF THE BANGALORE MUNICIPALITY FOR 1873-74.

	Pét.	Cantonments.
Collection, ...	£426	£1048
Head office charges, ...	455	1015
Public works, ...	1550	6194
Police, ...	1934	1297
Conservancy, ...	841	1632
Road-watering, ...	14	145
Lighting, ...	160	706
Miscellaneous, ...	949	2843
Total, ...	£6329	£12,880

The total income of the two municipal boards in 1873-74 amounted to £18,014, or an average of 2s. 7d. per head of the population within municipal limits. In the year 1875, the total strength of the municipal

police force was 456 officers and men, maintained at an aggregate cost of £8130, of which £4130 was paid from municipal sources. These figures show 1 policeman to every 313 of the population, and a charge upon the taxpayer of 7d. per head. In the same year the military force stationed in the cantonments consisted of 1 battery of horse artillery, and 2 field batteries, 1 regiment of European cavalry, and 1 regiment of European infantry, 4 companies of sappers and miners, and 2 regiments of Madras Native Infantry. In former days the strength of the garrison at Bangalore was much greater. The Bangalore Rifle Volunteers (a force first enrolled in 1868) consists of 3 companies, numbering 250 men, and a cadet company 100 strong.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Bangalore is noted for its healthiness, being well suited to the constitutions both of Europeans and natives. The mean annual temperature is 76·2°; the average annual rainfall is 36 inches. The registration returns for 1875 show a death-rate in the *pét* of 20·91 per 1000, and a birth-rate of 23·99; in the cantonments the death-rate was 20·54 per 1000, and the birth-rate, 31·52. In that year there was a severe outbreak of cholera in the cantonments.

Banganapalli.—Estate in Karnul (Kurnool) District, Madras.—*See* BANAGANAPALLI.

Bánganga.—A river of Rájputána; rises in the hills near Manoharpur, about 25 miles due north of Jeypore, and flows south-east for about 25 miles until it reaches a range of hills near Rámgarh. After forcing its way through these hills in a deep gorge about 1 mile in length, from 350 to 500 feet wide and 400 feet deep, it continues its course due east for about 65 miles, when it enters the Bhurtpore State near Mowah, at a point about 25 miles east of the range of hills above mentioned. It is crossed by the Rájputána State Railway. The stream in the gorge near Rámgarh is perennial, but below this point the bed dries up except during the rains. The banks are generally about 20 feet in height, and clearly defined. In floods, which last for a few hours, the stream becomes impassable, and in the gorge near Rámgarh the water rises sometimes to a height of 23 feet. After flowing through Bhurtpore (Bhartpur) and Dholpur States into Agra District, North-Western Provinces, it joins the Jumna (Jamuná) in lat. 27° N. and long. 78° 32′ E., after a course of about 200 miles. A temple, called Jumwa-ki-Dair, situated in the gorge, is visited by the Rájás of Jeypore on their accession to the *gadí*. Here they are shaved, the process being part of the ceremony connected with the accession.

Bánganga.—A river rising in the hills in the south of Nepál, and flowing in a southerly direction across the north frontier of the British District of Gorakhpur. After a course of 23 miles in this District, it joins the Burí Rápti. It is navigable, and a considerable quantity of timber is floated down.

Bangaon.—Subdivision of Nadiyá District, Bengal, lying between 22° 52′ and 23° 25′ 15″ N. lat., and between 88° 42′ and 89° 4′ 45″ E. long.; area, 649 square miles; pop. (1872), 318,770, comprising 132,246 Hindus, 186,146 Muhammadans, and 378 'others;' number of towns or villages, 746—of houses, 60,564; average density of the population, 491 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·15, and houses, 93; number of persons per house, 5·3. The Subdivision was created in 1860, and contained in 1871, 1 revenue and magisterial court, and 6 *thánás* (police circles). Police force, including village watch, 1011 men. Separate cost of Subdivisional administration, £5260.

Bangar.—*Parganá* in Hardoi *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Barwan, on the east by Gopamau and Bálamau (the river Sai marking the boundary line), on the south by Mallánwán, and on the west by Sándi and Bílgrám *parganás*. Formerly included in Bílgrám *parganá*, and separated from it in 1807. A populous and fairly-tilled tract, well wooded and watered, comprising an area of 143 square miles, of which 85 are cultivated. Numerous *jhíls* and wells afford the means of irrigation. Staple products—barley, *bájrá*, wheat, *arhar*, and gram. Government land revenue, £8599: pop. (1869)—Hindus, 52,337; Muhammadans, 2157; total, 54,494, viz. 30,467 males and 24,027 females: number of villages, 96; average density of population, 381 per square mile. The different tenures under which the villages are held are—*tálukdárí*, 13 villages; *zamíndárí*, 38; *pattídárí*, 44; *bháyáchára*, 1. The chief landed proprietors are the Chamár Gaurs, who hold 44½ villages; the Gohelwárs and Dhakarás hold 19 each; Káyasths, 10; Sayyids, 2; and Bráhmans and Ahirs, 1 each. Four unmetalled roads intersect the *parganá*, and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, which runs within a mile of the eastern border, affords another means of communication. HARDOI TOWN, the headquarters of the District, is situated in the northern apex of the *parganá*. Schools at Hardoi and two other villages. Three bi-weekly markets.

Bángarmau.—*Parganá* in Safipur *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mallánwán and Kachhandan *parganás* in Hardoi District, on the east by Mohán and Asíwan, on the south by Fatehpur, and on the west by the Ganges river, which separates it from Cawnpore District. A small *parganá*, 19 miles long and 14 broad, comprising an area of 173 square miles or 112,377 acres, of which 65,833 are cultivated and 26,104 cultivable but not under the plough, while the rest is barren. Soil chiefly loam and clay. Government land revenue, £13,714, at the rate of 2s. 3d. per acre. Land is held under the different tenures as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 25,600 acres; *pukhtadárí*, 1986; *zamíndárí*, 53,741; *bháyáchára*, 1865; *pattídárí*,

28,776; and Government, 408 acres. Pop. (1869)—Hindus, 76,945; Muhammadans, 12,651; total, 89,596, viz. 46,707 males and 42,889 females: number of villages, 149; average density of population, 518 per square mile; 7 bi-weekly markets, and 2 small fairs near the Ganges.

Bángarmau.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, on the road from Unao to Hardoi; 31 miles from the former town. Lat. 26° 53′ 25″ N., long. 80° 15′ 10″ E. Founded by a Muhammadan saint, Sayyid Alá-ud-dín, about 1300 A.D. At that time the neighbouring village of Newar was in possession of a Hindu Rájá, who sent a band of men to drive the Muhammadan away, whereupon, according to the local legend, the holy man cursed him so that he and all his people perished, and the town of Newar was annihilated. Its ruins are still to be seen. On Alá-ud-dín's death a shrine was built over his grave, which is still in the possession of his descendants. It was formerly rich and famous, but has now decayed in popular esteem, and has lost great part of the revenues with which it was endowed. Population of the town in 1869, 4573 Hindus and 3046 Muhammadans—total, 7619. Of the houses nearly one-half, or 781, are of masonry; 16 mosques; 1 Hindu temple; school; bi-weekly market.

Baniáchang.—Village in Sylhet District, Assam. Lat. 24° 31′ N., long. 91° 24′ E. It is said to have been founded in the first half of the 18th century by Abid Rezá, the first of the family of the old Hindu Rájás of Laur who submitted to pay tribute to the Mughals and embraced Muhammadanism. There is a mosque of great local repute. *Kásbá* Baniáchang has an area of 4·4 square miles; pop. (1872), 22,154.

Banihál.—Pass in Kashmir State, Punjab, lying over a range of the Himalayas. Elevation above the sea, 8500 feet. Lat. 33° 21′ N., long. 75° 20′ E.

Bánká.—Subdivision of Bhágalpur District, Bengal, lying between 24° 32′ 30″ and 25° 6′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 32′ 45″ and 87° 13′ E. long.; area, 1194 square miles; pop. (1872), 381,741, comprising 344,250 Hindus, 24,883 Muhammadans, and 12,608 'others;' average density of population, 320 per square mile; number of villages, 817, houses, 71,495; number of villages per square mile, ·68, of houses, 60; number of persons per village, 467, per house, 5·3. The Subdivision comprises the three *thánás* (police circles) of Umarpur, Bánká, and Katuriyá. In 1870-71 it contained 1 magisterial and revenue court, and a total police force of 1042 men; separate cost of Subdivisional administration, including police, £4297. Throughout the Subdivision, demon-worship, and especially the worship of the Bráhman demon Dube Bháiran, is prevalent.

Bánká.—Small town on the Chándan river in Bhágalpur District,

Bengal; headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name. Lat. 24° 53′ N., long. 86° 58′ 5″ E.

Bánká Canal.—The name given to the first reach of the Rúpnáráyan and Rasúlpur Canal in Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 6′ to 22° 12′ N., long. 88° to 88° 4′ E. It extends from near the mouth of the Rúpnáráyan to the Haldí river, a distance of 8 miles; depth, 8 feet. It is a tidal canal, navigable throughout the year.—*See also* RUPNARAYAN.

Bánkí.—Formerly one of the Tributary States of Orissa, but now under direct Government management; lying between 20° 15′ 30″ and 20° 30′ N. lat., and between 85° 23′ and 85° 40′ E. long.; area, 116 square miles; pop. (1872), 49,426 souls. It is bounded on the north by the Mahánadí river (separating it from the States of Barambá and Tigariá), on the east by the District of Cuttack, on the south by the District of Purí, and on the west by Khandpárá State. A small portion of the State lies north of the Mahánadí.

From 1805 to 1840, Bánkí paid an annual tribute to the Government of £443, but in the latter year the State was confiscated, owing to the Rájá having been convicted of murder and sentenced to imprisonment for life. Since that time it has been under the direct management of the Bengal Government, being included within the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Cuttack. In 1860-61, Bánkí yielded a revenue of £1333, which ten years later (1870-71) had increased to £1996.

The population of 49,426 persons inhabit 140 villages and 8432 houses. Classified according to religion, there are 46,553 Hindus, or 94·2 per cent., 249 Muhammadans, and 2624 'others;' the number of males is 24,970, or 54·5 per cent. of the population; average density, 426 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·2; persons per village, 353; houses per square mile, 73; persons per house, 5·9. The ethnical division of the people is as follows:—Aboriginal tribes, 2455, or 5·3 per cent. of the population, of whom 2174 are Savars; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 3816, chiefly Páns (1178) and Baurís (1038); Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin, 42,906, or 86·5 per cent. of the population, the most numerous castes being the Chásás, of whom there are 10,469, and the Keuts, 3332. On a comparison of these figures with those for the other Tributary States of Orissa, it will be seen that Bánkí is the most densely populated of all, and that the proportion of Hindus is much greater, and that of the aboriginal tribes much less, than in any of the rest. The principal village in the State is Bánkí, on the south bank of the Mahánadí (lat. 20° 21′ 30″ N., long. 85° 33′ 11″ E.). There is a head police station at Chárchiká, with outposts at Báideswar, Kalápathar, and Subarnapur. The total police force is 194 strong. Bánkí contains 2 schools, attended in 1872 by 116 pupils; and there were in the same year 31 village schools, attendance unknown.

Bánkípur.—The civil station of Patná, and administrative head-

quarters of Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 36′ 40″ N., long. 85° 10′ 50″ E. Forms a western suburb of PATNA city, and is inhabited almost entirely by the European residents of that town. The houses of the Europeans, and the police lines, judicial courts, and other public buildings, extend for the most part along the old bank of the Ganges. The railway station (East Indian Railway) is in the quarter called Míthápur. About a mile from it is the *Golá*, or store-house, of which an account will be found in the article on Patná city. Bánkípur has a *maidán* or common, a church, jail, dispensary, racket-court, and billiard-room. There is no trade except in the articles of food, etc. required by the European residents. During the dry weather the stream of the Ganges is about a mile distant, but in the floods it flows close to the station. The distance of Bánkípur from Calcutta by rail is 338 miles. There is a separate station at Patná, 6 miles by rail from Bánkípur.

Bánkomundí.—Mountain peak in the north of Bod State, Orissa; height, 2080 feet. Lat. 20° 42′ 24″ N., long. 84° 20′ 18″ E.

Bánkot.—Seaport on the creek of the same name in Ratnagiri District, Bombay. Lat. 17° 58′ 30″ N., long. 73° 5′ 10″ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports £52,760, imports £56,529.

Bánkurá.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 54′ and 23° 37′ N. lat., and between 86° 49′ 15″ and 87° 35′ E. long.; area, 1346 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 526,772 souls. It is bounded on the north by the Ráníganj Subdivision of the Bardwán District, the boundary-line being formed by the Dámodar river; on the east by the police circles (*thánás*) of Sonámukhí, Kotalpur, and Indás; on the south by the Garbhetá Subdivision of Midnapur District; and on the west by the District of Mánbhúm.

Physical Aspects.—Bánkurá forms the connecting link between the plains of Bengal on the east and the highlands of Chutiá Nágpur on the west. In the east of the District, where it adjoins Bardwán, the scenery presents the ordinary features which characterise the lowlands of Bengal. The country is flat and the land alluvial and well suited for the cultivation of paddy. Proceeding in a westerly or northerly direction, the character of the scenery gradually changes; the land becomes more and more undulating, while patches of jungle and rocky boulders appear, succeeded by forest-crowned hills, which gradually increase in height until they reach an elevation of more than 1400 feet above sea level. Of these hills the most prominent is Susumá (1442 feet), which forms a prominent feature in the landscape. It is quarried on its southern face by the Bardwán Stone Company. The dense jungle which covers this

hill and the western part of the District generally, is the home of tigers, leopards, small but fierce bears, and many other wild animals, and shelters the cobra and every variety of Indian snake. Here, too, large supplies of lac and *tasar* are obtained, the gathering of which gives occupation to the poorer classes of the people, especially Santáls and Báurís. The principal rivers of the District are the DAMODAR and the DHALKISOR or Dwárkeswar, which, although insignificant streams during the hot weather, become navigable in the rains (from the middle of July to the middle of October) by boats of 50 to 60 tons burden. At times, during the rainy season, these rivers rise so suddenly, owing to the flow of rain-water from the neighbouring hills, that a head-wave is formed, called the *hurpá bán*, not unlike the *bore* or tidal wave in the Húglí, which often causes loss of life and great destruction of property.

Bánkurá was formerly situated within the *chaklá* of Bardwán, and was with it ceded to the East India Company on the 27th September 1760. Some time after the English obtained the *díwání* of the whole Province of Bengal, the Bishnupur *zamíndárí*, as Bánkurá was then called, formed a part of Bírbhúm District, and remained so until 1793, when, by order of the Board of Revenue, it was transferred to Bardwán. By Regulation xviii. of 1805, Bishnupur was included in the newly-established Jungle Mahály, and continued to form part of that District until 1833. In 1835-36 it was created a separate Collectorate. Numerous changes of boundary, and the old-standing discrepancies between the revenue, judicial, and police jurisdictions long caused confusion. But in 1872, the transfer to Bardwán of *parganás* Sonámukhí, Indás, and Kotalpur in the east, and Shergarh and Senpahárí in the north, and the addition of Chátná *tháná* (from Mánbhúm) on the west, rendered the jurisdictions almost conterminous.

History.—The historical interest of the District centres in the town of BISHNUPUR, which formerly gave its name to the surrounding country. The Rájá of Bishnupur is the descendant of one of the ancient Hindu petty dynasties which formerly held the Bengal frontier against the jungle tribes of the inner plateau on the west. A full account of the family, taken from their native chronicles, will be found in the *Annals of Rural Bengal.*

A long list of kings is recorded, one of whom built tanks and embanked lakes; another raised temples and set up idols; a third encouraged trade; and a fourth spent his time in war. In the beginning of the 11th century we read that 'Bishnupur was the most renowned city in the world, and it became more beautiful than the beautified house of Indra in heaven. The buildings were of pure white stone. Within the walls of the palace were theatres, embellished rooms, dwelling-houses, and dressing-rooms. There were also houses for

elephants, barracks for soldiers, stables, storehouses, armouries, a treasury, and a temple.' Three hundred years later the fort was strengthened, the Governor had orders to prepare a new uniform for his army, and so on.

In later history, the family figures in turn as the enemy, the ally, and the tributary of the Musalmán Nawábs. It was exempted from personal attendance at the Court at Murshidabad, and appeared by a representative or a Resident at the Darbár. During the 18th century, the Bishnupur house declined. Impoverished by Marhattá raids and Muhammadan extortions, it finally succumbed beneath the famine of 1770, which left the country almost bare of inhabitants. More than one-half of the estates relapsed into jungle, and the family was reduced to such poverty that the Rájá was compelled to pawn his household idol, Madan Mohan (a remnant of aboriginal worship), with one Gokul Chandra Mitra of Calcutta. Some time after, the unfortunate prince with great difficulty managed to collect the amount required to redeem it, and sent his minister to Calcutta to obtain back the pledge. Gokul received the money, but refused to restore the idol. The case was brought before the Supreme Court at Calcutta, and decided in favour of the Rájá; whereupon Gokul caused a second idol to be made, exactly resembling the original, and presented it to the Rájá. The earlier years of British administration intensified rather than relieved the difficulties of the house of Bishnupur. The Rájás insisted upon maintaining a military array which was no longer required under English rule, and for the support of which their revenues were altogether inadequate. The new system protected them from Marhattá raids and Muhammadan oppressions, but, on the other hand, it sternly put down their own irregular exactions from the peasantry, enforced the punctual payment of the land tax, and realized arrears by sale of the hereditary estates. The Bishnupur family never recovered from the indigence to which they were reduced by the famine of 1770, and their possessions in the District have passed to new and more energetic families. Bishnupur is now in ruins; the palace, with its armouries and theatre and embellished rooms, has disappeared; the interior of the fort is a jungle, in the middle of which lies peacefully an immense roughly-fashioned gun—12½ feet in length—the gift, according to native tradition, of a deity to one of the Rájás.

Population.—The population of the District, according to the Census of 1872, numbers 526,772 persons, dwelling in 2028 villages or townships, and 104,687 houses, the average pressure of the population on the soil being 391 persons per square mile. The great majority of the people (92·6 per cent.) are Hindus; the Muhammadans form a very small proportion (only 2·6 per cent.) of the population; while

the total number of Christians is given as 70, of whom 37 are native converts. The remainder of the population, numbering over 25,000, consists of various hill races and jungle tribes, professing primitive aboriginal superstitions. These are found in the jungly western portion of the District, and comprise chiefly Santáls, Khariás, and Bhumijs. The total number of Santáls is 25,378, and of Khariás, 17,939. Of the total adult male population, 118,665, or nearly three-fourths, are engaged in agriculture or with animals, or are returned as 'labourers;' 24,238 are employed in mechanical arts, manufactures, and engineering operations, and in the sale of goods manufactured and prepared for consumption; 6759 are engaged in commerce and trade; and 5399 are in service or perform personal offices. Of the female adult population of 183,822, the large majority (172,188) are unemployed, while nearly 5000 are engaged in manufactures. The number of male children in the District is 95,564, and of female children 81,260. The Bráhmans and Rájputs number 58,653; agricultural and pastoral castes, 91,683; and artisan and trading castes, 113,519. The population is almost entirely rural. There are 1287 villages containing fewer than two hundred inhabitants; 526 with from two hundred to five hundred; 165 with from five hundred to a thousand; 49, with from one to five thousand. Only two towns in the District contain a population of more than five thousand—namely, BANKURA (population, 16,794) and BISHNUPUR (population, 18,047).

BANKURA, the chief town and administrative headquarters of the District, is situated on the north bank of the Dhalkisor river. Bishnupur, farther south, was the ancient capital of the District under its native Rájás. It is described by Colonel Gastrell[1] as having been once strongly fortified 'by a long connected line of curtains and bastions measuring 7 miles in length, with small circular ravelins covering many of the curtains. Within this outer line of fortifications, and west of the city, lay the citadel. The remains of these defences still exist. The Rájá's palace was situated within the citadel. What it may have been in the palmy days of its ancient chieftains it is difficult to say. But at present, a very insignificant pile of brick buildings surrounded by ruins marks the site.' These ruins, among which are many remains of temples, are of different ages and styles of architecture. The modern city contains the public offices, several schools, and many Hindu and Muhammadan temples. The houses are very poor, although many of the inhabitants are wealthy,—a circumstance which is explained by the statement that the rapacity of former Rájás was so great, that it was dangerous for any one to show signs of wealth; and the custom of building mean dwellings has been handed down from father to son. Of the villages of Bánkurá, the following are deserving of mention:—

[1] Statistical and Geographical Report on Bánkurá District.

Ondá, on the south bank of the Dhalkisor, half-way between Bánkurá and Bishnupur; Chátná, Gangájalghátí, Barjuá, and Rájgrám.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in Bánkurá, as throughout the rest of Bengal, is rice. The *áman* or winter crop is sown in April or May (the ground having been previously four times ploughed), transplanted in July or August, and reaped about December; the *áus* or autumn rice is sown broadcast in May, and reaped in September. Among the other crops raised in the District are oil-seeds (mustard, *tíl*, and *smárgujá*), *atar* (peas), and *chholá* (gram), cotton, flax, hemp, indigo, sugar-cane, and *pán*. Cotton is gathered in March or April, and indigo generally in July. There are, however, two seasons for sowing indigo, one in February or March, and the other about October. The cultivation of indigo is not increasing, owing partly to the uncertainty of the spring rainfall of late years, and partly to the fact that the soil is not very well suited to this crop. Irrigation is necessary for all kinds of crops in Bánkurá, and is effected by means of wells and tanks where natural water-courses and streams are not available; the cost of irrigation varies considerably throughout the District, being for rice land from 9s. to 15s. an acre, and for sugar-cane land from 18s. to £1, 16s. an acre. Manure, consisting of rich black mud scraped from the bottom of tanks or reservoirs and mixed with ashes and stubble, is used for rice fields, and for more valuable crops cow-dung is added; the cost varies from 4s. 6d. to 9s. an acre. On all lands growing sugar-cane and other exhausting staples, rotation is observed, the cane being generally followed by *tíl*, after which a crop is taken of *áus* or autumn rice, succeeded by mustard (often mixed with peas). Although spare land fit for tillage is scarce in the District, tenures are not unfavourable to the cultivator. As in other parts of Bengal, the land is let and sub-let to a great extent, many middlemen coming between the proprietor and the cultivator. The tenures are generally of the ordinary descriptions, the only one of special interest being 43 *ghátwálí* estates held subject to payment of a light quit-rent to Government. This quit-rent was originally payable to the Rájá of Bishnupur, on account of service lands held by the *ghátwáls* or officers appointed for the defence of certain passes against the inroads of the Marhattás and others, who made frequent plundering expeditions into the country. The *ghátwálí* estates were annexed to the regular rent-paying lands at the time of the Decennial Settlement; and on the application of the Bishnupur Rájá, who found that he had no control over their services, the *ghátwáls* were taken over by the Government, the revenue paid by the Rájá to the State being reduced by the amount he had received from them. Wages and prices have considerably increased in the District of late years. In 1860, the price of the best cleaned rice was 2s. 10½d. a cwt.; in 1871, it had risen to

4s. 5d.; the price of sugar-cane in 1860 was 8½d., and in 1871, 1s. 8d. a cwt. The present wage of coolies and agricultural day-labourers is 3d. per diem; formerly they received about half that sum. No marked change has taken place in the rates of rent since the Permanent Settlement; the present rates for rice land are from 9s. to 18s. an acre; for inferior land, 3s. to 12s.; the rates for land suitable for the cultivation of cotton, sugar-cane, and other superior crops are of course higher, £1, 17s. 6d. an acre being given for such land, and £2, 14s. for land yielding two crops.

Natural Calamities.—The District is subject to drought, occasioned by a deficiency in the rainfall. Reference has already been made to this deficiency, which is attributed to the indiscriminate clearing of jungle. As there are very few patches of low marshy land in the District which retain moisture for a considerable time, a year of general drought results in serious calamity. The famine of 1866, which followed such a season, affected Bánkurá principally in the western portion, the tract adjoining Bardwán not suffering at all seriously. The number of paupers relieved during the months of July, August, September, and October 1866, was 33,216; the total sum placed at the disposal of the Relief Committee was £3044. Four relief dépôts were opened. The price of coarse rice rose from 7s. 5d. a cwt. in January, to 18s. 8d. in August, and £1, 1s. 4d. in September. In 1871, prices had not yet returned to the rates prevailing before the famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal manufactures of Bánkurá District are silk and cotton fabrics. Bishnupur town contains a large weaving population, and is noted for the prettily embroidered silk scarfs and fine cloths of silk and cotton there manufactured. Plates, cups, etc., of a kind of soap-stone, are also carved at Bishnupur by the local stone-cutters; the stone, which is brought from Mánbhúm, is of a grey colour, close-grained and compact, and easily cut. The District manufactures suffice to meet the local demand, and a considerable surplus is left over for exportation to other Districts and to Calcutta. The chief articles of export are rice, oil-seeds, cotton, and silk cloth, silk cocoons, and lac; the imports are English piece-goods, salt, tobacco, spices, etc. The exports are considerably more valuable than the imports, and coin is consequently accumulating in the District. Trade is carried on chiefly by means of permanent markets, and also through the medium of fairs. Bánkurá is well supplied with roads, and the transit of light loads by cart or pack-bullock is easy in the cold and hot weather, though many of the common cart roads and tracks become impassable during the rains.

Administration.—Since Bánkurá was constituted a separate Collectorate in 1835-36, the District revenue has steadily increased. In

that year the total revenue amounted to £40,670, and the total civil expenditure to £8006; by 1850-51, the revenue had increased to £50,736, and the civil expenditure to £17,511; in 1860-61, the revenue had further risen to £60,072, and the civil expenditure to £19,426; while in 1870-71, the total District revenue amounted to £69,130, and the civil expenditure to £25,441. During the thirty-five years, therefore, between 1835-36 and 1870-71, the District revenue increased by 72 per cent., and the civil expenditure by 217 per cent. Since the last-mentioned year the District area has undergone considerable change, owing to transfers to Bardwán on the east, and annexations from Mánbhúm on the west, which have already been referred to; the total area of the District, however, remains almost unchanged. While the general revenue of Bánkurá increased, as the above figures show, by 38 per cent. between 1850-51 and 1870-71, the increase in the land revenue within the same period has been only 3 per cent., the figures being for the former year £43,766, and for the latter £45,110. Some idea may be formed of the increased extent to which person and property are protected at present, by comparing the number of courts in the District at different periods. In 1835-36, there were only 1 magisterial and 1 revenue and civil court in the District; in 1862, there were 4 magisterial and 13 revenue and civil courts; and in 1870, 7 magisterial and 15 revenue and civil courts. For police purposes the District is at present divided into the five *thánás* of Bánkurá, Ondá, Bishnupur, Chátná, and Gangájalghátí. The regular police force consisted in 1872 of 1 superior and 38 subordinate officers, with 157 constables, maintained at a total cost, including all contingencies, of £4379 a year, equal to 1⅞d. per head of the population. In addition there was a municipal police force of 5 officers and 76 men, maintained at a total cost of £524 a year, defrayed by rates levied within municipal limits; and a rural force of village watchmen numbering 4715 men. Each village watchman has charge, on an average, of 22 houses, and receives an average pay in money or lands of £2, 16s. 8d. a year. The estimated aggregate cost, both Government and private, of maintaining these several police forces amounted, in 1872, to £18,324, equal to a charge of £13, 12s. 3d. per square mile, or 8¼d. per head of the population. In the same year, the proportion of persons convicted of 'cognisable' offences was 1 to every 1165 of the population, and the number convicted of 'non-cognisable' offences, 1 to every 1656 of the population. There is only one jail in the District, at Bánkurá town. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 240, and in that year not a single death occurred in the jail, which is reputed one of the most healthy in Bengal. Education is gradually making progress in the District. In 1856-57, the total number of Government and aided schools was 14, with 1354

pupils; in 1872-73, the returns show 134 Government and 58 private schools, attended by 6425 pupils, costing £2970, of which Government contributed £1103.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Bánkurá is oppressive and relaxing in the hot season, but from October to the end of February it is bracing and enjoyable; during the rains the District is not so damp and unhealthy as those farther east. The average annual mean temperature, according to the latest returns, is about 78·60° F., and the average rainfall about 53 inches. Intermittent fever is common in Bánkurá as in other Districts of Bengal, and is said to have been particularly severe at Bishnupur since the famine of 1866. Leprosy, diarrhœa, and dysentery are also common. Cholera is almost always present in a sporadic form, and sometimes becomes epidemic; outbreaks occurred in 1855, 1860, 1864, and 1866. Small-pox, too, is occasionally epidemic in the District.

Bánkurá. — Municipality and Administrative Headquarters of Bánkurá District, Bengal, on the north bank of the Dhalkisor river. Lat. 23° 14′ N., long. 87° 6′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 16,794, comprising 15,979 Hindus, 711 Muhammadans, and 104 Christians and 'others'; number of houses, 2435; persons per house, 6·9; municipal income in 1871, £551; rate of municipal taxation, 7⅞d. per head of population within municipal limits. Contains besides the usual public buildings, courts, treasury, post office, jail, etc., a church, Government school, and public library. The school was attended in 1871-72 by 222 pupils. The library is supported by subscriptions contributed chiefly by European and native officials. The station is dry, and is regarded as very healthy. Considerable trade is carried on, the chief exports being rice, oil-seeds, lac, cotton and silk cloth, silk cocoons, etc., and the principal imports English piece-goods, salt, tobacco, spices, cocoa-nuts, and pulses.

Bannawási.—Town in North Kanara District, Bombay Presidency; situated 20 miles south-east of Súnda, and 370 north-west of Madras. Lat. 14° 33′ N., long. 75° 5′ E. Formerly a town of considerable importance, but now hardly more than a village. The temple to Siva, though a mean building, had once very large endowments, and is still much frequented. The name occurs in Ptolemy.

Bannu.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 32° 10′ and 33° 15′ N. lat., and between 70° 26′ and 72° E. long.; area, by the measurements of the recent settlement, 3786 square miles; population in 1868, 287,547 souls. Bounded on the north by the Khatak Hills in the British District of Kohát; on the east by the British Districts of Ráwal Pindi, Jhelum (Jhilam), and Shahpur; and on the west and north-west by hills in the occupation of independent Wazíri tribes. The civil station and head-

quarters of the administration are at the town of EDWARDESABAD, situated near the north-west corner of the District, in lat. 32° 59′ N., long. 70° 38′ E.

Physical Aspects.—The Indus, passing through the District from north to south, divides it into two distinct portions. Westwards from the river, after a strip of open plain, the country rises rapidly into a range of hills—the Khatak-Niázai or Maidáni range—in which one peak, that of Sukha Ziárat, rises to a height of 4745 feet above the sea level. Beyond lies the valley of Bannu proper, stretching to the frontier hills, an irregular oval, measuring 60 miles from north to south, and about 40 miles from east to west. Girt in by mountains, the valley itself is open and comparatively level, having a soil composed of thick deposits, apparently of lacustrine clay, mingled more or less copiously with sand. Towards the south and east, the sand in places completely smothers the sub-soil of clay. Northwards, the country is closely cultivated and thickly dotted with villages, trees, and gardens; while irrigation channels, flowing between grassy banks, impart an unusual air of freshness. Circling this valley lies a zone of sandy, undulating waste (the *thall*), strewn here and there with boulders, and scrubby with prickly bushes of camel-thorn. Above it, rises a rampart of mountains;—on the west, the independent Wazíri Hills, barren and rugged to the eye, but topped by the commanding peaks of Pír-ghul and Shiwidar; on the north, the low Khatak Hills of Kohát, above which may be seen, on a clear day, the distant range of the Sufed Koh; on the east, the Khatak-Niázai Hills; and on the south, a low range culminating in the limestone rocks of Shekh Budín. The valley is drained and fertilized by the rivers Kurram and Tochi (Gambíla), which join a few miles beyond the town of Laki; and the united stream, after turning the southern end of the Khatak-Niázai, finds an exit to the Indus.

After passing Kálabágh, on the northern confines of this District, the Indus expands at once into a wide and open bed. To the east lies a level plain, a portion of the central Punjab wilderness. It is shut in towards the north-east by the Salt Range, which enters the District from that of Shahpur 25 miles due east from the town of Miánwáli, and thence runs northwards till it meets the Indus at Mári, opposite Kálabágh. The range is barren and unproductive; and its drainage is carried down in short-lived torrents, which are rapidly swallowed up by the thirsty soil at its base. The total area belonging to this District upon the east side of the Indus is 1439 square miles, supporting a population of 90,780 souls.

History, etc.—The population of Bannu is, and has been for many centuries, essentially Afghán. There are, however, remains which tell of an older Hindu population, and afford proof that the District came within the pale of the ancient Græco-Bactrian civilisation of the Punjab.

At Akra and other places in the Bannu valley, mounds of various sizes exist, where, amid fragments of burnt brick and tiles, of broken images and Hindu ornaments, coins occur with Greek or pseudo-Greek inscriptions. Again, at Rohri, the Indus, which for some years has been encroaching upon the Miánwáli plain, has on several occasions laid bare masses of stone, which must have been brought from a distance, now embedded at a depth of some 10 or 15 feet below the surface. In 1865, the river retired before it had quite washed away the remains it had exposed, and portions of two circular walls were traced, composed of blocks of stone and large well-burnt bricks plastered, and in places overlaid with thin gold and ornamental scroll-work. Numerous copper coins were also found, and a number of heads and other fragments, apparently cast in some kind of plaster. The well-shaped features and proportions of the broken statues bear the unmistakeable stamp of Grecian art.

The close of the era of prosperity indicated by these remains is attributed in local tradition to the ravages of Mahmúd of Ghazní. For upwards of a century afterwards, the country appears to have lain waste, till at length the Bannu valley was gradually colonized by immigrants from the western hills—the Bannuwáls or Bannuchis, who still remain, and the Niázais, who subsequently gave place to the Marwats. The advent of the Marwats is placed in the reign of Akbar. The Niázais, whom they expelled, spread across the Khatak-Niázai Hills, and colonized the plain country upon both banks of the Indus. The Marwats still hold the southern portion of the Bannu valley.

At this time, and for two centuries later, the country paid a nominal allegiance to the Delhi emperors. In 1738 it was conquered by Nádir Sháh. Ahmad Sháh Duráni subsequently led his army three or four times through the Bannu valley, levying what he could by way of tribute on each occasion. So stubborn, however, was the opposition of the inhabitants, that neither conqueror made any attempt to establish a permanent government. In 1838 the valley passed by cession to the Síkhs. In the cis-Indus portion of the District, Síkh rule had been already established under Ranjít Sinh, by annexation from the Ghakkars of Ráwal Pindi, who at a still earlier date had suffered defeat at the hands of his father and other Síkh chieftains. Ranjít Sinh now lost no time in attempting to occupy his new territory. Elsewhere in the District he had met with little opposition; but in the Bannu valley he was forced, after several efforts, to fall back upon the expedient of his predecessors, and to content himself with the periodical despatch of a force to levy what he was pleased to term 'arrears of revenue;' in reality to devastate the country, and carry off whatever booty could be secured.

Such was the state of affairs when, after the death of Ranjít Sinh,

the District was first brought under British influence. In the winter months of 1847-48, Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes was despatched to the frontier as political officer under the Council of Regency at Lahore, accompanied by a Síkh army under General Van Cortlandt. Arrived in Bannu, he found a large portion of the District practically independent. In the Bannu valley every village was a fort, and frequently at war with its neighbours, while the Wazíri tribes of the frontier were ever seeking opportunities for aggression. Within a few months, Edwardes reduced the country to order, effecting a peaceful revolution by the force of his personal character, and without the exchange of a single shot. The forts were levelled; arrangements were made for the collection of a regular revenue; and so effectual were his measures, that on the outbreak of the Mooltan war he was able to hurry to the scene of action with considerable levies from this District, who served loyally throughout the campaign. The Síkhs in garrison at Edwardesabad meanwhile rose against their officers, and, having murdered them, marched to join their brethren in arms. A force from the hills at the same time invaded the District, but was held at bay by Lieutenant Russel Taylor, Edwardes' successor. In the following year the Punjab was annexed, and the District passed without a blow under British administration. It received its present administrative area in 1861, having up to that time been divided between the Districts of Derá Ismáil Khán and Leiah. The even tenor of administration has been at times disturbed by frontier raids, but no trouble has at any period been given by the inhabitants of the District itself. In the Mutiny of 1857, the country remained perfectly quiet. The border is guarded by a series of military outposts, garrisoned from Edwardesabad, where a force is maintained, consisting of one regiment of cavalry, 492 sabres; one battery of artillery having four nine-pounder smooth-bores; and two regiments of infantry, 1470 bayonets, including men on furlough.

Population.—The population of the District has been twice ascertained by enumeration—in 1854, and again in 1868. The first Census returned a population of 170,946 trans-Indus, and 66,611 in the eastern Subdivision of Miánwálí; total, 237,557. The second gave the following results:—Trans-Indus, 196,767; cis-Indus, 90,780: total, 287,547. The gross increase shown by the late Census amounted to 49,990 souls, or 21·03 per cent. upon the population ascertained in 1854. The area being 1439 square miles cis-Indus, and 2347 trans-Indus; the density of the population is, cis-Indus 63·01, and trans-Indus 83·83 per square mile. Classified according to religion, there are—Hindus, 26,222; Muhammadans, 260,550; Síkhs, 493; 'others,' 282. Classified according to sex, there are—males 154,061, females 133,486. The returns of age and occupation are probably untrustworthy.

The Muhammadans outnumber the remaining population of the

District in the proportion of nearly ten to one. Foremost among them, both numerically and in respect of political importance, stand the Afgháns or Patháns, who, by the Census of 1868, numbered 119,168, or 41·44 per cent. of the total population of the District. The most important Afghán tribes are Khataks, numbering 11,400; Wazíris, 11,909; Lohánis (Marwats, Niázais, and others), 65,760; and Bannuchis, little less than 30,000. The Khataks are found in the Khatak-Niázai range and along the northern border of the District towards Kohát. The Wazíris are settlers upon the western frontier, and are only half reclaimed from their mountain life beyond the border, to which, indeed, they return during the hot-weather months. They are a tall and robust people, possessed of many manly virtues, fairly industrious as cultivators, and regular taxpayers. The Marwats, inhabitants of the lower and more sandy portions of the Bannu valley, are one of the noblest races of the North-West Frontier. Patháns of pure descent, they are naturally haughty and of a fiery disposition. In person they are tall and muscular; in bearing, frank and open. Almost every officer who has administered the affairs of the District has left on record a favourable mention of them. They are now excellent agriculturists. To these the Bannuchis form a painful contrast. They are probably of mixed descent, and exhibit every Afghán vice, without possessing the compensating virtues of constancy and self-respect. They are small in stature, sallow and wizened in appearance, and in disposition mean and revengeful. They are, on the other hand, industrious cultivators, and have been uniformly quiet and submissive subjects to the British Government.

Of the remaining Muhammadans, nearly 60,000 are classed in the Census returns under the heading 'Ját,' a term which here bears no ethnological signification, but includes all of the cultivating classes who are not either Patháns, Sayyids, or Koreshis.

Hindus number in all 26,222 souls, including 1670 Bráhmans, 1407 Kshattriyas, and 20,809 Aroras. The last-mentioned are the traders and money-lenders of the District, into which they are said to be comparatively recent immigrants. One family at least of Aroras will be found in every rustic village. A few Bráhmans also are engaged in trade. The mass of the population is either agricultural or pastoral, and is scattered in small hamlets over the face of the country. The Census returns (1868) show 627 towns and villages in the District, of which 370 contain less than 200 inhabitants. Of the total number, 367, or considerably more than half, are in the Fiscal Subdivision of Bannu Proper; 77 only are east of the Indus. These figures, however, do not necessarily refer to actual village or town sites, but represent the number of revenue-paying units (*mauzá*). Some of these are of considerable area, and contain a large but very scattered population. The only

towns properly so called in the District are—EDWARDESABAD (Dhulípnagar), having a population of 3900; LAKI, 4368; KALABAGH, 6070; ISA KHEL, 6608; MIANWALI, 4654.

Agriculture.—A great part of the District has been brought under cultivation since the introduction of British rule. Some early, and perhaps imperfect, returns give the cultivated area, in 1849, at 265,470 acres. In 1862, the recorded area of cultivation was 432,379 acres. In 1872, the measurements of a regular settlement gave the following results:—Acres cultivated, 579,663; fallow or recently abandoned, 186,521; cultivable but uncultivated, 717,677; barren waste, 954,436. In Bannu Proper (the country of the Bannuchis), every acre is under the plough, and the call upon the soil is incessant. The free use of manure and inundations from the fertilizing Kurram enable the same fields to bear two harvests, year after year,—wheat or barley in the early summer; millets, pulses, cotton, Indian corn, and sugar-cane, with a little rice, in the autumn. The same crops, excepting rice, form the staples of cultivation in all parts of the District. Wheat and barley are sown in October or November, and reaped in April or May; cotton is sown in April and May; millets, pulses, and Indian corn are sown in July and August. The autumn harvest continues throughout November. After the Bannu valley, the richest lands are to be found in the low-lying bed of the Indus, which in places measures about 14 miles across. But agriculture here is precarious, and depends from year to year upon the caprice of the river when in flood. Villages which have thousands of acres under cultivation one year, will next year have hundreds only, or none at all. Such land is termed *kacha*. Its spring crops of wheat and barley are peculiarly fine; but no autumn crop can be attempted by reason of the floods. Beyond the high eastern bank of the Indus there is very little cultivation indeed. The cultivated area may be thus classified in respect of irrigation:—Acres irrigated by cuts from the Kurram and Gambíla, 99,212; ditto by cuts from the Indus, 11,889; ditto by well, 1367; subject to inundation from the Indus, 54,511; dependent on the local rainfall, 412,684. The acreage under the principal crops in the year 1875-76 was returned as follows:—Rice, 115 acres; wheat, 262,620; millets, Sorghum vulgare (*joár*), 12,037, and Panicum spicatum (*bájra*), 95,100; maize, 36,057; barley, 25,740; gram, 47,232; other pulses, 12,240; cotton, 9811; sugar-cane, 10,198.

Land Tenures, Wages, Prices, etc.—The village tenures of this District, as a rule, present few features of peculiarity, and fall naturally under the standard communal types recognised throughout the Province. An exception, however, exists in the custom, once general, and still surviving in a few Marwat villages, of the periodical re-distribution of holdings among the shareholders. This custom is called the 'Khula Vesh.' It has received official sanction at the recent revenue-settle-

ment. Cultivation is chiefly carried on by peasant proprietors, and money rents between tenant and landlord are rare. There are no large proprietors, and the land is minutely subdivided. All cultivators who assisted the proprietors of the soil in clearing waste lands, are generally held to have occupancy rights in their holdings. Such tenants surrender a small proportion of their produce as a recognition of the proprietor's right, or pay him a trifling percentage on the Government revenue assessed upon their holdings. Ordinary tenants pay rent in kind, at rates which range from one-half to three-fourths of the gross produce of their fields. These rates are reported to have undergone no material change since 1849. Extra hands taken on at harvest time are paid in kind, at customary rates. Other labour has more than doubled in value since annexation. In the early years of British rule, unskilled labour could be always hired for 2 *ánnás* or 3d. per day, sometimes for even less. The rates in 1876 ranged up to 5 *ánnás* or 7½d. per day. The official returns for the year 1876 give the prices of some principal items of local consumption, as they stood upon January 1st of that year, as follows:—Wheat, 39½ *sers* per rupee; barley, 62½ *sers;* gram, 46¼ *sers;* millets, Sorghum vulgare, 60 *sers;* and Panicum spicatum, 55 *sers.* These prices show a very considerable fall below those of 1866, when wheat stood at 15 *sers* per rupee; barley, 23½ *sers;* gram, 22 *sers;* millets, Sorghum vulgare, 22 *sers;* and Panicum spicatum, 17 *sers.* The scarcity of the year 1868-69 was not felt in this District.

Commerce and Trade, Communications, etc.—The District has but little export trade. Alum, manufactured at Kálabágh, and also at Kutki in the Khatak-Niázai Hills, is exported in small quantities. Salt is quarried from the right bank of the Indus, about 2 miles above Kálabágh, and conveyed across the river to Mári, one of the Government salt marts of the Shahpur Customs District. A little grain is also sent down the river, to find a market at Dera Ghází Khan or Sukkur (Sakkar). Sugar, piece-goods, and a few other items are imported. The local seats of commerce are Dhulípnagar, the *bázár* of Edwardesabad, Isa Khel, Kálabágh, Miánwáli, and Laki, the principal village of the Marwat country. In all foreign and many home transactions, the river forms the highway of traffic. The District is badly provided with roads. Edwardesabad lies upon the military frontier road, which connects it with Kohát and Pesháwar on the one hand, and with Dera Ismail Khan and Dera Ghází Khan upon the other. Another road, passing Isa Khel and Miánwáli, connects it with Shahpur, whence roads diverge to different parts. These are the only made roads of the District, and neither of them is metalled. There are 797 miles of unmetalled roads in the District. Communication is frequently cut off for days during the rainy season by floods, either of the Indus or of the Kurram and Gambíla. Neither of the last-mentioned streams is navigable.

Administration.—The revenue derived from the District, after the exclusion of purely local items, amounts to about £47,500, of which about £42,000 is the produce of the land tax. This has been (summarily) assessed twice since the annexation of the District; and a third (regular) assessment was in progress at the time of writing. The first assessment, effected in 1849, fixed the demand on account of land revenue at £36,995; the second, effected at different times between the years 1846 and 1861, enhanced the demand to £40,718. In the year 1875-76, the collections of land revenue, together with certain items of a fluctuating nature classed with it, amounted to £42,385, or about 1s. 1¼d. (8 *ánnás* 10 *pies*) per acre of land cultivated or fallow. The gross revenue for the same year amounted to £47,007. The annual cost of the collection of the land revenue amounts to about £2500. In 1861-62, the earliest year in which figures for the District in its present form are available, the gross revenue (excluding income tax) amounted to £42,529, of which the revenue of all kinds derived from land contributed £40,306. Stamps, which in 1861-62 yielded only £1754, had risen in 1871-72 to £4122.

The number of civil and revenue judges of all ranks in the District is 10, including a Deputy-Commissioner and three Assistant or extra-Assistant-Commissioners. One of the latter is always stationed at Miánwáli, east of the Indus. The same officers are also magistrates. The police force of the District numbers about 450 men, being 1 to every 636 inhabitants. The returns of crime are high. In six years, 1867-72, there were 101 murders in the District, and 73 cases of dacoity and robbery with violence. Cases of criminal trespass and theft together averaged, in the same years, 620 per annum. There is a small jail at Edwardesabad, in which the daily average number of prisoners during three years was 79. The efforts of the State in the cause of education are represented by numerous village schools. A Church Mission School at Edwardesabad also receives a grant in aid. In 1873, a sum of £543 was spent in the District upon education; in the same year the number of scholars on the rolls was 1222. In 1876, Bannu had 1 school to every 123 square miles of area; and 1398 scholars, in the proportion of ·47 per cent. to the total population. The Census of 1868 returned 5917 persons of both sexes able to read and write. The following towns are municipalities constituted under Act iv. of 1873:—EDWARDESABAD, LAKI, ISA KHEL, and KALABAGH. The aggregate population within municipal limits is 20,146, and the aggregate municipal income for the year 1875-76 amounted to £1893, or 1s. 11¼d. (15½ *ánnás*) per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is marked by the usual Punjab characteristics of extreme heat during the summer months, and considerable cold during the winter. No record of temperature is kept. The

Edwardesabad cantonment, and the irrigated portion of the Bannu valley generally, are extremely unhealthy, intermittent and remittent fevers being especially prevalent. Disease of the spleen is also very common among the Bannuchis. The rainy months are those of July and August. The death-rate seems to be highest in November and December. On an average of eight years, ending 1873-74, the annual rainfall may be put approximately at 11·8 inches.

Bannu.—*Tahsíl* of Bannu District, Punjab, forming the northern portion of the circular basin drained by the rivers Kurram and Tochi, and enclosed on every side by lofty mountains. Lat. 32° 44′ 30″ and 33° 5′ 45″ N., long. 70° 24′ 30″ and 71° 0′ 30″ E. Inhabited by a mongrel Afghán tribe known as Bannuchis. Area, 523 square miles; pop. (1868), 87,859 souls; number of villages, 367; area under cultivation, 124,675 acres.

Bannu (or *Edwardesabad*).—Headquarters of Bannu District, Punjab.—*See* EDWARDESABAD.

Bánsa.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 6 miles north-east of Mallánwán. Pop. (1869), 2116, living in 518 houses. A thriving village held by Kanaujia Kúrmis for upwards of seven centuries, to the ancestors of whom the site was awarded for loyal services by the Hindu Rájá of Kanauj. School.

Bánsbáriá (or *Bánsbáti*, 'The Place of Bamboos').—Municipality on the Húglí river, in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 57′ 30″ N., long. 88° 26′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 7861, comprising 7207 Hindus, 634 Muhammadans, and 20 'others;' municipal income in 1871, £215; rate of municipal taxation, 6⅝d. per head of the population within municipal limits. There is a famous temple with 13 pinnacles, and as many images of Siva, dedicated to the goddess Hanseswarí. It was built by Ráni Sankarí Dásí, the wife of a *zamíndár* of the place, at a cost of a *lákh* of rupees (£10,000), and was formerly protected by an armed fort, armed with four cannon and surrounded by a trench. The temple occupies 15 acres of ground. There were formerly 12 or 14 *tols*, or Sanskrit schools (*see* NADIYA DISTRICT), at Bánsbáriá, but Sanskrit studies are now on the decline. Here, too, the first native Christian church under a native minister in this part of the country was formed, the pastor being an educated native named Táráchánd, who spoke English, French, and Portuguese with fluency.

Bánsdá (*Wánsdá*).—Tributary State within the Political Agency of Surat, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 20° 42′ and 20° 56′ N. lat., and between 73° 18′ and 73° 34′ E. long.; bounded north and west by Surat District, north-east by the State of Baroda, east by the Dáng States, and south by the State of Dharampur; estimated area, 242 square miles; population (1872), 32,154; estimated gross revenue, £11,083. With the exception of a few villages bordering

on the District of Surat, almost the whole country is covered with forest, the surface in some places being level and in others rising into rocks and small hills. The climate is unhealthy, fevers and other diseases prevailing throughout the year. There are some tracts of black soil, but over the greater part of the State the soil is light-coloured. Products—rice and pulse; manufactures—cotton tape, baskets, and coarse woollen cloth. The family of the chief are Hindus of Rájput extraction, claiming descent from the Solanki race of princes. The ruins of the fortified enclosure near Bánsdá, and of several temples and works of irrigation, point to a former period of prosperity. At one time the chiefs probably had possessions extending to the sea-coast; but by the advance of the Musalmáns they were gradually driven to seek refuge in the more thickly-wooded parts of their dominions. The Marhattás seem to have been the first to bring the chiefs entirely into subjection, and impose a tribute upon them. The right of levying this tribute was transferred by the Peshwá to the British by the treaty of Bassein (1802). The chief now pays to the British Government a yearly tribute of £735. He maintains a military force of 158 men, with 2 field and 12 other guns. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. The family follows the rule of primogeniture, and has received a *sanad*, or patent, authorizing adoption. In consequence of the death of the chief in February 1876, the State is being administered by an officer of the British Government during the minority of his son. At Unái, within the limits of this State, is a hot spring, the temperature of which is generally but little below boiling point; but once a year, at the time of the March full moon, the heat abates sufficiently to allow a company of pilgrims and devotees to bathe in it.

Bánsdá.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Guzerat; in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 47′ 30″ N., long. 73° 28′ E.; pop. (1872), 2321.

Bansdih.—Town in Ghazipur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 52′ 38″ N., long. 84° 15′ 30″ E.; area, 150 acres; pop. (1872), 7319 souls. Situated on a level alluvial plain, 2 miles north-west of the Suráhá Lake, and 8 miles south of the Gogra (Ghágra).

Bánsgaon. — *Tahsíl* of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Rápti and the Gogra (Ghágra). Area, 612 square miles, of which 359 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 345,401 souls; land revenue, £23,480; total revenue, £25,634; rental paid by cultivators, £65,050; incidence of Government revenue, 1s. 2⅛d. per acre.

Bánsi.—*Tahsíl* of Basti District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the river Rápti. Area, 609 square miles, of which 426 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 287,681 souls; land revenue, £24,453; total

revenue, £26,841; rental paid by cultivators, £59,964; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 3d.

Bánskháli. — Village in Chittagong District, Bengal, with small export trade in rice. Lat. 22° 50′ 15″ N., long. 91° 31′ E. The place gives its name to a police circle (*thúná*), and also to a small canal and an embankment.

Bánsloi.—Tributary of the Bhágirathí river, Bengal, rising in the Santál Parganás, and flowing a generally eastern course through Murshidabad District till it falls into the Bhágirathí opposite the large commercial town of Jangipur. Navigable during the rainy season by boats of 2 tons burden.

Bánsror.—Fort, Rájputána.—*See* BHAINSROR.

Bánsura.—Town in Sitapur District, Oudh, on the right bank of the Chauka river; 39 miles from Sitapur town. Pop. (1869), 2822. Government opium warehouse, school, tri-weekly market.

Bánswára.—State in Rájputána, lying between 23° 10′ and 23° 48′ N. lat., and between 74° 2′ and 74° 41′ E. long; area, 1500 square miles; pop. (1875), about 150,000. The inhabitants are nearly all Bheels, of a wild and turbulent character. The country is hilly, with abundance of timber. It originally formed part of Marwar, but became independent prior to the establishment of the British supremacy. The chief, who is entitled the Mahárávul, is a Rájput of the Sesodiá tribe, and has received the right of adoption. Revenue about £30,000, of which 33 feudatories enjoy £11,000; tribute, £3913. The military force consists of 3 guns with 20 gunners, 60 cavalry, and 500 infantry. Chief town, Bánswára. Lat. 23° 32′ 34″ N., long. 74° 29′ E.

Banthar.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 5 miles south of Unao town, on the road from Purwa to Cawnpore. Pop. (1869), 2757 Hindus and 50 Muhammadans—total, 2807; 6 Hindu temples; vernacular school.

Banthly (*Wanthli, Vanathali*).—Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 28′ 30″ N., long. 70° 22′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 6056.—*See* WANTHLI.

Bántwá.—Tributary State within the Sorath District of the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 21° 24′ and 21° 39′ N. lat., and between 70° 0′ 15″ and 70° 18′ 45″ E. long.; estimated area, 208 square miles; pop. (1872), 40,314; gross revenue, £14,070. The country is for the most part a plain of rich black soil, watered towards the south by the Bhádar and Ujit rivers. The climate is on the whole good; the average rainfall is about 25 inches. The chief diseases are fever and dysentery. Besides the usual grains, much cotton is grown, and a considerable quantity of sugar-cane. There is a local manufacture of coarse cotton cloth.

The ruling family is Musalmán, descended from a younger son

of the second Nawáb of Junágarh, to whom the Bántwá territory was made over in 1740. Engagements to keep order and remain at peace were entered into with the British Government in 1807. The present chief, Kamál-ud-dín Khán, with the title of Bábi, resides at Mánáwadar, and maintains a military force of 216 men. He has no *sanad* authorizing adoption, nor does the succession follow the rule of primogeniture. The chief pays to the British Government an annual tribute of £1682. The State is without made roads; the produce of the country finds its way outwards chiefly through the harbours of Veráwal, Mángrol, and Porbandar. There are 7 schools, with 825 pupils.

Bántwá.—Chief town of the same name, in Káthiáwár, in political connection with the Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 29′ 15″ N., and long. 70° 7′ E.; pop. (1872), 10,970. The town is fortified.

Bantwála.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras Presidency, containing about 1000 houses, chiefly occupied by traders. Lat. 12° 53′ 20″ N., long. 75° 4′ 50″ E. Situated on the river Naitravati, 14 miles east of Mangalore. Formerly a place of importance, and still, as an *entrepôt* for the produce of the District on its way to Mysore, possessing a considerable through traffic. During the war with Tippú Sultán the town was partially destroyed by the Rájá of Coorg, who also carried off half the inhabitants as prisoners. The river bed is here encumbered with masses of hornblende rock, containing mica and garnets, sienite and a beautiful pegmatite, with flesh-coloured crystals of felspar. The former *táluk* of Bantwála extended over 1650 square miles, and was divided into 88 *mugaris*, containing 394 villages and 8449 estates, paying a total revenue of £25,000 per annum. It was dismembered in 1852, and merged in the other *táluks* now existing.

Baoni.—State in Bundelkhand, enclosed on all sides by British territory, lying between 25° 53′ 15″ and 26° 7′ N. lat., and between 79° 42′ 30″ and 80° 30′ 25″ E. long.; length, north to south, about 15 miles; area, 127 square miles; estimated population in 1875, 20,000; estimated revenue, £10,000. This is the only Muhammadan State in Bundelkhand. The Chief, Nawáb Mehedi Husáin Khán, has a military force of 40 cavalry, 300 infantry, and 75 police, 3 guns, and 8 gunners. The grant of 52 villages was originally made about the middle of the last century to Ghází-ud-dín Khán by the Peshwá. This grant was confirmed by the British Government on obtaining possession in 1802, and the Muhammadan descendant of the original grantee still holds the *jágír*, and resides at Kalpi.

Báori.—State in Central India.—*See* KALI BAORI.

Bapatlá.—*Táluk* in Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 15° 54′ N., long. 80° 31′ E.; houses, 25,562; pop. (1871), 143,629, being 73,747 males and 69,882 females. Classified according to religion, there were in 1871—136,409 Hindus (including 39,370 Sivaites, 86,256 Vaishnavs, and

10,385 Lingáyats); 6858 Muhammadans (including 6469 Sunis, 30 Shiás); 30 Christians, chiefly Roman Catholics. Chief town, BAPATLA.

Bapatlá.—Town in Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 15° 54′ 30″ N., long. 80° 30′ 25″ E.; pop. 10,695; houses, 1994. Situated about 30 miles south of Guntoor. Headquarters of the *táluk* of same name, with a District *munsif*, post office, and travellers' bungalow.

Bárá.—A river in Pesháwar District, Punjab. Rises in a valley of the same name, lying in native territory on the southern side of the Kháibar Hills; receives its chief tributary, the Tíra Toi, 8 miles beyond the British border; runs north-east through the District, passing within 2 miles of Pesháwar, and falls into the Sháh Alam branch of the Kábul river shortly before its junction with the main stream. Near the fort of Bárá the river is intercepted by three cuts, of which one conveys water to the town of Pesháwar, while the others supply the water-courses of the Khalíls and Mohmands. The lower channel is consequently dry for the greater portion of the year; but heavy rains in the Tíra Hills render it impassable for days together. The roads to Kohát and Attock cross the Bárá; the former passes over a good timber bridge, but delay often occurs through sudden floods on the latter crossing. The stream gives its name to the celebrated Bárá rice, which grows along its banks. The Síkhs required the whole crop to be brought to Pesháwar, where the best portion was reserved for seed; the second best was sent to Ranjít Sinh at Lahore, and the remainder was left to the *zamíndárs*. The Bárá is regarded as a sacred river, and the spot where its waters are first divided forms a special object of veneration. The Afrídis can stop the stream by cutting off the head waters.

Bára.—Village in Unao District, Oudh; 16 miles south of Purwa, and 24 east of Unao. Lat. 26° 21′ N., long. 80° 46′ E. Founded by an eponymous Rájá Bára of the Bhar tribe, about 2000 years ago. Pop. (1869), 1683 Hindus and 55 Musalmáns—total, 1738. Goldsmiths' and carpenters' work, indigo manufactory. Two Hindu temples.

Bara Banki.—A District in Oudh, under the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 31′ 30″ and 27° 21′ 15″ N. lat., and between 80° 58′ and 81° 54′ E. long; area, 1769 square miles; population in 1869 (allowing for subsequent transfers), 1,112,165 souls. The easternmost of the three Districts which make up the Lucknow Division, Bara Banki is bounded on the north and west by Sitapur and Lucknow, on the south by Rae Bareli and Sultánpur, on the east by Fyzabad, and on the north-east by the broad streams of the Chauka and Gogra (Ghágra), which separate it from Bahraich and Gonda.

Physical Aspects.—Like the rest of the Oudh portion of the Ganges basin, Bara Banki consists of an almost level plain, falling gradually from

north-west to south-east towards the Bay of Bengal, at a gentle gradient of 3 feet in the mile; with lateral inclinations at a gradient of 6 feet in the mile towards the beds of its main rivers, the Gogra and the Gumti. The regularity of this gentle seaward slope suggests the belief that the plain was originally levelled by marine denudation; then slowly raised above the waters by the gradual silting up of the mouths of some ancient Himalayan river debouching upon it,—next, covered with sand and soil washed down from the mountains; and fashioned at last to its present configuration by the scour of a tropical rainfall. The floods of ages, fed by mountain glaciers, and pouring over this slanting plain, have cut through it two great channels to the sea, the valleys of the Ganges and the Gogra. Along the right bank of the latter river, Bara Banki District stretches for 48 miles, and spreads inland for about 30 miles, over the water-parting which divides the immediate basin of the Gogra from that of its affluent the Gumti; it then slopes down the watershed and into the Gumti valley. Crossing the District from stream to stream, each of its leading features presents itself in turn. Leaving behind the broad Gogra, known here as the Chauka, until at Bahramghat it meets the Sarju, a strip of loose, white river sand is crossed, hot and glaring even under a morning sun; then a tangle of tamarisk and tall *sarpat* grass (Saccharum moonja), the haunt of wild boar, deer, and *nílgai;* and farther on, a cool green champaign, dotted with groups of grazing cattle, and chequered with patches of rice and clumps of stunted acacia (*bábul*). Thence out of the flat alluvial valley of the Gogra, the road leads for some 25 feet up a broken sandy ridge, the western edge of the valley, over an uneven undulating region, poorly cultivated and timbered, to a broad sheet of level tilth, brisk with crowded villages, and set so thick with groves of mango that everywhere they meet the sky, and form a near background to a landscape full of quiet charm. In the heart of this tract lies a chain of small shallow lakes (*talábs*) and marshes (*jhils*), which fill a series of slight depressions in the level plain, and testify to its alluvial origin. Unconnected in dry weather, in the rains they fill and spread and link together in a long line, stretching for many miles parallel to the course of the river. Still bearing westwards, we come to a narrow stream creeping between steep banks fringed with brushwood and broken by ravines. This is the Kalyáni, an affluent of the Gumti, and the main channel by which the chain of *jhils* is drained. In the great flood of 1872 a torrent 90 yards broad and 5 fathoms deep, discharging more than 50,000 cubic feet a second, poured along it. Between the Kalyáni and the Gumti lies the richest section of the District. The general aspect is not unlike that of the plain already described, but the crops are better watered and heavier, the patches of waste land fewer, the groves and villages somewhat more frequent. The

Gumti is a winding river, 40 yards broad, fordable, flowing with many sudden twists and gentle curves along a deep channel 50 feet below the crest of the bank from which you look down upon it. Innumerable ravines cut up the country along its course, and penetrate deep into the inland plateau.

History.—The early annals of Bara Banki have been little studied. Its legends have still to be gathered, its ancient places are not yet explored. Memories of pre-historic times still linger here and there. In June, on the 'Day of Snakes,' worshippers assemble at Majhita near Nawabganj, at Purái near Siddhaur, and at the Dighi Tank at Aliabad, to offer milk and rice at these legendary haunts of the kindly serpent-kings (Nágas). Physical blessings, such as the cure of goitred throats, are believed to be in their gift. A historical significance underlies this survival of a primitive aboriginal religion—the worship of the serpent in his Æsculapian character, recalling a long distant past, when the now mythical Nágas were a ruling and civilised race. At Aliabad and Siddhaur, high mounds of curious shape, fragments of stone temples, and bricks of unusual size, belong perhaps to the period when the Buddhist King Asoka (250 B.C.) erected *stupas* at such places as the serpent-tank (Nága-hrada) of Ahichhatra, 'near which Buddha had preached the law for seven days in favour of the serpent-king' (General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, i. p. 361). The period of Buddhist ascendancy seems to have been synchronous with the sway of a once powerful but now degraded tribe, the Bhars. Here, and in the neighbouring Districts of southern and eastern Oudh, the land is thickly strewn with relics of their wealth and power, in the shape of tanks and wells and embankments, and the deserted sites (*dihs*) of brick-built forts and towns. In western Oudh, Thatheras, Jhojhas, Arakhs, and Rájpásias occupy the corresponding page in local history. The revival of Bráhmanism was apparently accompanied by the forcible displacement of these low-caste Buddhist tribes by Kshattriya warriors. A murderous struggle was still going on when the Muhammadan invasions took place. The exhaustion of Bhars and Kshattriyas alike, and the difficulty of rallying both against the common foe, contributed to the invader's success. An outline of the Muhammadan conquest of Bara Banki indicates the extent to which the Kshattriyas had displaced the Bhars in the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries. In 1030 A.D. the first Muhammadan invader of Oudh, Sayyid Sálár Masáud, fought his way past Mooltan, Delhi, Meerut (Mírath), and Kanauj, to Satrikh in Bara Banki, then a city of importance and a frequented shrine. From Satrikh, Kintur, Narindgarh, now called Thahimabad, and Subeha, he drove out the Bhars, while at Sihali he defeated Siharias, and at Dewa Janwár, Kshattriyas. The first permanent Muhammadan settlement in Oudh seems to have been made at Satrikh. In

1189 A.D. the Siharias were finally conquered by Ausári Shaikhs; in 1238 A.D. Sayyid Abdul Wahid seized Johelpur from the Bhars, and named it Zaidpur. About the same time the Sayyids of Kheoli, near Dewa, won the domain now held by them from the Bhars of Bhitauli; while Bháti Muhammadans, from Bhatnair, wrested Barauli from Bais Kshattriyas, and Mawái-Maholára from Bhars; Rudauli was conquered from Bhars in 1300 A.D., and Rásulpur in 1355. To the 15th century, when Oudh was the battle-field between the Sharki dynasty of Jaunpur and the Lodi kings of Delhi, is assigned the military colonization of Dariabad by Dariáo Khán Subahdár, of Fatehpur by his brother Fateh Khán, and of Kainiár and the Kalhans country on both sides of the Gogra (Ghágra) by Achal Sinh, one of his lieutenants, an adventurer from Guzerat, of foreign, some say English, extraction. At the present day the lords of six great *táluks* and twenty thousand Kalhans clansmen look back to Achal Sinh with pride as the founder of their family and fortunes. In the same disturbed period Haráha was garrisoned with Surájbans, and Surájpur with Sombansí Kshattriyas. It is uncertain whether the great colony of Raikwár Kshattriyas in Rámnagar dates from this or from an older time. The annalist of Bahraich fixes 1414 A.D., but Sitapur tradition places it 200 years earlier, the date when Saldeo and Baldeo—Surajbans emigrants from Kashmir, taking a tribal name from their native village, Raika—sought service with the Bhar Rájás of Rámnagar in Bara Banki and of Bamnauti, now Baundi, across the Gogra in Bahraich. Each in time supplanted his master, and ruled in his stead. So founded, the Raikwár colony grew, and spread for 60 miles along either bank of the river. In the reign of Akbar, gallant service in Kashmir earned for the Raikwár chieftain Harhardeo the grant of *parganá* Saílak (now Rámnagar and Muhammadpur) in Bara Banki, and of eight other *parganás*, whole or part, in Bahraich, Sitapur, and Kheri. In 1751 A.D. the recent successful raid of the Rohillas, and the absence of the imperial troops in Rohilkhand, tempted the Raikwárs to head a great rising of Hindus against the Muhammadan Government. Prominent among their fellow-rebels were the Bisens of Gonda and the Janwár Kshattriyas of Balrámpur. Marching upon Lucknow, they were met at Chulaha Ghát, on the Kalyáni, by the Shaikhzádás of Lucknow, and the Khanzádás of Mahmúdabad and Biláhra. After a fierce conflict, in which 15,000 men were killed and wounded on both sides, the Muhammadans won the day. The Khanzádás rose into power, the Raikwárs for a time lost it; the *tálukás* of Baundi and Rámnagar were broken up, and the Raikwár Rájá retained only a few of his villages. In the evil times which set in on the death of Sáadí Alat Khán, in 1814, the Raikwárs recovered their lost estates, and before the annexation in 1856 they had become masters of a larger domain than had been theirs in

1751. Under the Native Government, Daryabad District, as it was then called, bore an evil reputation for turbulence and disorder. In jungles and ravines along the Gumti and Kalyáni lay the strongholds of many bandits, such as the Barelia Bais Rájá Sinhjí of Surájpur, Mahipat Sinh of Bhawánigarh, and Gangá Baksh of Kásúnganj, whose crimes are recorded in Sir W. Sleeman's *Diary*.

In 1856 the District, with the rest of Oudh, came under British rule. During the Sepoy war of 1857-58 the whole of the Bara Banki *tálukdárs* joined the mutineers, but offered no serious resistance after the capture of Lucknow. At the battle of Nawabganj (June 1858) the Raikwár *zamíndárs* of Sitapur and Bahraich fought and fell with all the historic heroism of Rájputs. The Queen of Oudh, driven from Lucknow, had fled for refuge to their fort at Baundi, and these chivalrous chiefs were devoted to her cause. 'I have seen,' wrote the British general, 'many battles in India, and many brave fellows fighting with a determination to conquer or die, but I never witnessed anything more magnificent than the conduct of these *zamíndárs*.' Order was re-established in July 1858. In 1859 the headquarters were removed from Daryabad, where stagnant pools produced malarious fever, to Nawabganj Barabanki. The District consisted at this time of 13 *parganás* grouped into the 3 Subdivisions (*tahsíls*) of Nawabganj, Daryabad-Rudaulí, and Rámnagar. In 1869-70, 5 new *parganás* were added, viz. Bhitauli from Bahraich, Dewa and Kursi from Lucknow, Subeha from Sultanpur, and Haidargarh from Rae Bareli. *Parganá* Sidhaur was divided into Siddhaur North and South; and the 19 *parganás* thus made up were arranged in the 4 Subdivisions of BARA BANKI, FATEHPUR, RAMSANEHI, and HAIDARGARH.

Population.—The Census of 1869 (allowing for subsequent transfers) shows a population of 1,112,165 persons, dwelling in 2093 villages; area, 1769 square miles; villages per square mile, 1·18; houses per square mile, 138; persons per square mile, 630—per village, 531—per house, 4·5; number of males, 566,190—females, 545,975; proportion of males, 50·9 per cent.; percentage of total population under 12 years of age, 35·15. The following statistics are for the District as it stood in 1869, with an area of 1348 square miles:—Europeans numbered 67, Eurasians 9. Muhammadans—higher castes, 44,872, chiefly Shaikhs and Patháns; converts from the higher castes of Hindus, 110; lower castes, 64,857, of whom nearly two-thirds are weavers (*julahas*) and cotton-carders (*dhuniyas*); total, 109,839. Hindus—higher castes, 132,415, Bráhmans contributing 70,355, and Kshattriyas 32,219; lower castes, 611,845; total, 744,260: aboriginal castes, 3757; religious mendicants, 11,426. Prominent among the lower Hindu castes are Kúrmis, agricultural labourers (134,687); Ahirs, or cowherds, a pastoral race of doubtful origin (96,857); *quasi*-aboriginal Pasis (74,303), once lords of the soil in

western Oudh, now peasants without privilege, village watchmen, swine-herds, or thieves; Chamárs, or leather-curers (42,268), dirty and degraded drudges, who feed at times on carrion. More than nine-tenths (93·5 per cent.) of the population is rural. The urban percentage (6·5), though fourth highest in Oudh, is only a third of that obtaining in England or France. Only 6 towns have more than 5000 inhabitants. These are NAWABGANJ (10,606), RUDAULI (11,617), ZAIDPUR (10,680), FATEHPUR (7194), RAMNAGAR (5714), and DARYABAD (5399).

Agriculture.—The field survey, completed in 1865, shows that three-fifths of the soil, or 703,360 acres, are cultivated. The staple crops are wheat and rice, occupying nearly half the cultivated area. A fifth is sown with barley and gram (Cicer arietinum); about 20,000 acres are under sugar-cane; the principal remaining crops are maize, millets, field-peas, and *arhar* (Cytisus cajanus). Poppy cultivation has increased from 2681 acres in 1868 to 7111 acres in 1873. The average out-turn of opium is 1400 *maunds*, or 1025 cwts. a year; the price paid for it by the Government to the producer is, at 10s. the *ser*, £28,000. The crops commonly irrigated are wheat, sugar-cane, peas, lentils, and melons. Cane and melons receive seven or eight waterings. The rivers in the dry season flow too far below the level of the country on their banks to be of much use for irrigation, but ponds and small shallow lakes (*jhils*) are numerous (covering 7 per cent. of the total area), and yield a precarious water-supply. Irrigation from them is costly work. The water is swung up in buckets over successive 'lifts,' until the fields are reached. Two pairs of labourers work at each lift, relieving each other hour by hour; another pair guides the slender stream over the thirsty fields. It takes 18 men to work a four-lift water-course; and as in most seasons two waterings are absolutely necessary, it has been calculated that to irrigate by this method costs 8s. 4d. an acre. Irrigation from wells is widely practised, and is preferred for the crops. Water is generally found at about 30 feet below the surface, and unbricked (*kachhá*) wells, watering from 5 to 10 acres, can be dug for from 6s. to 12s. They seldom, however, last longer than a year, unless lined with the twisted stems of the malabar nut (*rusa*). A leather bag, worked by two men and a pair of bullocks, is used for drawing the water. To dig a new *kachhá* well, and to give the required couple of waterings, costs, on an average, 6s. 8d. an acre. In the north-eastern part of the District, between the Kaliani and Gogra, the sandiness of the subsoil makes irrigation far more difficult. Only very small wells can here be dug; every day or two sand falling from the sides chokes the spring, and has to be cleared out. Nothing larger than an earthen pitcher, worked by hand over a pulley or by a lever, can here be used.

Three-fifths of the District is owned by large proprietors (*tálukdárs*),

the rest by village coparceners. Muhammadans, though forming only 11 per cent. of the population, own 938 out of 2093 villages. Of the 1155 villages owned by Hindus, 826 are held by Kshattriyas, chiefly of the Raikwár and Surájbans clans; 97 by Káyasths, 86 by Bráhmans, and 35 by Kúrmis.

The cultivators are for the most part tenants-at-will, rack-rented and debt-ridden, without any rights in the soil, and very inadequately protected from enhancement and eviction. Competition, displacing custom in the settlement of rents, is gradually reducing them to the status of cottiers. Farms are small, averaging 4 acres; rents are extremely high, and range from 8s. an acre for outlying lands away from the homestead, to 14s. for better situated but unirrigable fields, £1 for ordinary home-lying, irrigable lands, and £2, 10s. for garden-plots. Grain-rents obtain in the uneven sandy tract about Rámnagar. Wages, it is stated, have not risen; a skilled field labourer gets from 4s. to 5s. a month in money; yearly presents of grain and a blanket raise his total earnings to from £2, 14s. to £3, 6s. a year, or from 1s. to 1s. 3d. a week. A day's work at the water-lift earns 1½d. and three ounces of roasted maize; at wells, 3d. worth of field beans. On road-work, hodmen get 2¼d., and excavators, 3d. a day; 4½d. is the daily wage of blacksmiths and carpenters. Prices have risen at least 30 per cent. since the beginning of the century. During the 10 years ending 1870, the average prices of food grains were—best rice, Rs. 6. 14. 8 a *maund*, or 18s. 11d. a cwt.; common rice, Rs. 4 a *maund*, or 11s. a cwt.; unhusked rice (paddy), Rs. 2 a *maund*, or 5s. 5½d. a cwt.; wheat, Rs. 1. 15. 0 a *maund*, or 5s. 3½d. a cwt.; barley and maize, Rs. 1. 10. 8 a *maund*, or 4s. 6½d. a cwt.

Natural Calamities.—In the last great famine, that of 1837-38, when severe drought followed a succession of poor harvests, the price of gram rose to Rs. 8 a *maund*, or £1, 1s. 10d. a cwt. There has been no such dearth since. In 1865 and 1868 droughts brought up the price of flour to Rs. 5 a *maund*, or 13s. 8d. a cwt., for some months, and in 1873 to Rs. 3. 10. 0, or 9s. 10½d. a cwt. In 1871 and 1872 heavy floods poured down the Kalyáni, and, by stopping all field-work, caused even sharper distress to the labouring classes than drought, during which there is often a brisk demand for labour at wells. The approach of famine will be threatened whenever the price of millets or barley rises, for more than a month, to Rs. 2. 3. 0 the *maund*, or 6s. the cwt. With two navigable rivers, bridged roads between the chief towns, and road and railway communication with Cawnpore, Lucknow, and Fyzabad, the District is in no danger of isolation.

Commerce and Trade.—Trade is carried on at bi-weekly markets and at religious festivals. At the marts of Nawábganj and Tikaitnagar the traffic is mainly in grain, treacle, molasses, English and country made cloth, and vessels of iron and brass; in grain and cloth at Sa'adatganj,

Tilokpur, Udhauti, and Zaidpur; grain and cotton at Chamierganj; grain and cattle at Siddhaur. The imports are piece-goods from Cawnpore, salt from Agra and Delhi, coarse red cloth (*kharúa*) and coloured stuffs from Kalpi; turmeric, pepper, and spices from Gorakhpur and Nepál. The main exports are wheat, sugar, and country-made cloth. There is an extensive through traffic by road, rail, and river. *Sál* logs from the forests of Oudh and Nepál are floated down the Gandak to Bahramghat, to be carted thence to Lucknow and Cawnpore. Rice, maize, and oil-seeds come over the Gogra from Bahraich, and are shipped from Puraina Ghat to Lower Bengal in country boats, or despatched by road to Cawnpore. Trade is growing, for the eight years ending 1874 have doubled the income from tolls at the boat bridge at Bahramghat. The manufactures of the District are plain and coloured cloth of coarse quality from home-spun and imported yarn; the extraction of sugar and treacle from the cane; brass and iron vessels for domestic use; and the rustic implements, ornaments, and utensils of the farm and hut.

The main streams of land traffic flow along 67 miles of railway, opened in 1872, and an equal length of metalled road, from Bahramghat and Fyzabad to Nawábganj, and thence to Lucknow and Cawnpore. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has eleven of its stations in the District, and from these, in 1873, were received and despatched 337,081 passengers and 9921 tons of goods. Unmetalled roads, bridged and repaired from District funds, with an aggregate length of 150 miles along the main lines, connect the leading towns and markets.

Administration.—In 1860 the land tax was £83,599; during the regular settlement (1865-1867) it was raised to £122,521. In 1869-70 the addition of the new *parganás* brought it up to £157,521. The total imperial revenue is higher than in any other District in Oudh; it amounted in 1872 to £171,425, the chief items, other than land tax, being stamps (£5699) and excise (£4434). The imperial charges were £11,180, or less than 7 per cent. of the receipts. The District is administered under the non-regulation system by a Deputy Commissioner, 2 Assistant Commissioners and 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, and 4 *tahsíldárs*. Each of these officers, in addition to executive duties, presides as magistrate and judge over a criminal, civil, and rent-suit court. The judicial machinery is strengthened by the unpaid services of 4 honorary magistrates, selected from among the native gentlemen of the District.

For police purposes the District is divided into 9 circles (*thánás*), with populations ranging from 84,719 to 168,975. In 1873, the regular police force numbered 428 of all ranks, and cost £6575. A rural police of 3425 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*) was maintained by the

landowners at a cost of £9031; and there was a municipal police of 68 constables, costing £430. Total police force, 3921 officers and men, or 1 man to every ·45 square mile of area and to every 283 persons of population; total cost, £16,036, or an average of £9, 1s. 1od. per square mile, and 3⅜d. per head. During the six years ending 1872, the average number of convictions for rioting, theft, robbery, coining, culpable homicide, and murder, was 627, being 1 conviction to every 1773 of the population. Five-sixths of the convictions were for theft. The Raikwárs of Rámnagar still practise female infanticide. A special Census undertaken in 53 of their villages in 1871 showed that, out of every 5 girls born, 2 had probably been made away with.

The District is divided into 19 *parganás* or clusters of villages, grouped under 4 subdivisions (*tahsíls*).

Medical Aspects. — The year divides into three seasons—the hot weather from the end of March to the middle of June, then the rains till the end of September or beginning of October, and the cold weather till March comes round again. Average rainfall for the 9 years ending 1873, 41 inches; varying from 21 inches in 1868 to 64 inches in 1871. The prevailing diseases are epidemic cholera, generally introduced by pilgrims, small-pox, and malarial fevers, of a mild, intermittent, quotidian type. Cases of tertian and remittent fevers are rare. A few sporadic cases of cattle-disease occurred in 1871 and 1872, but there has been no serious outbreak.

Bara Banki.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision in Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Fatehpur, on the east by Rám Sanehi, on the south by Haidargarh and by Mohanlalganj in Lucknow, and on the west by Lucknow and Malihabad in Lucknow District. Area, 357 square miles, of which 229 are cultivated: pop. (1869), Hindus, 185,107; Muhammadans, 37,448; total, 222,555, of whom 115,805 are males and 106,750 females: number of villages or towns, 392; average density of population, 705 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the five *parganás* of Nawabganj, Dewa, Satrikh, Siddhaur North, and Partabganj.

Bara Banki.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh, about 1 mile north of Nawabganj, the two places together forming the administrative headquarters of the District. Lat. 26° 56′ 10″ N., long. 81° 13′ 10″ E. Before the Muhammadan conquest the place was known as Jasnául, having been founded by a Bhar Rájá named Jas, some 900 years ago. After the Musalmán invasion of Kanauj, the new owners are said to have divided the place into 12 shares, over which they quarrelled so incessantly that they were called the Bára Bankas, or 12 quarrelsome men, whence the present name of the town. Others derive the name from *bán*, meaning jungle, and interpret Bara Banki as the 12 shares

of jungle. The lands belonging to the town are much subdivided, and the inhabitants are chiefly small Musalmán proprietors and their dependants. Pop. (1869), including Nawabganj, 14,489. The civil station is at NAWABGANJ, and further particulars will be found in the article under that head.

Barábár.—Hills in Gayá District, Bengal; a range of great interest to the archæologist, as it contains many remarkable antiquarian remains; lying between 25° 1′ and 25° 2′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 3′ 30″ and 85′ 7′ E. long. On the highest peak (Barábár) is an ancient temple sacred to Sidheswára, containing a *lingá*, said to have been placed there by Bárá Rájá, the Asar king of Dinájpur, whose bloody wars with Krishna still live in the remembrance of the people. A large fair, attended only by men, is held here in September. The pilgrims begin to arrive at daybreak, and spend the day on the hill; the night is devoted to the worship of the image, and in the morning the crowd begins to melt away. An extempore *bázár* is established for the day, at which sweetmeats and other offerings for the god are sold. The number who attended the *melá* in 1873 was roughly estimated at between 10,000 and 20,000 men. To the south, and near the base of this hill, the path up which is freely adorned with images of all kinds, lies a small recess enclosed on two sides by the mountain, on a third by an artificial barrier of stone, and on the fourth by a long low ridge of granite. Here, in the solid rock, have been cut the remarkable caves which give the name of *Sátghar* (literally '*Seven Houses*') to the glen. The four caves found in this part of the mountain average 32 feet by 14 feet; three of them are chiselled to a wonderful polish, the fourth being still unfinished. Pálí inscriptions show that the oldest was cut in 252 B.C., and the latest in 214 B.C. The remaining three caves are on another spur of the hill, called Nagarjuní. Not far off is the sacred spring of Patalgangá, and at the base of the rugged peak of Kanwádol ('*Crow's Rocking-stone*') is an enormous figure of Buddha. Many other figures and sculptures are found among these hills. They have been fully described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton and General Cunningham. In the *Bengal Atlas* of Major Rennel, this cluster is called the Currumshaw Hills. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton points out that this name is a corruption of *Karná Champar*, or 'Karná's Seat,' the name of an ancient ruin on the hills.

Barábátí Fort.—The citadel of Cuttack town, in Cuttack District, Bengal; situated on the south bank of the Kátjurí river opposite Cuttack. Lat. 20° 29′ N., long. 85° 56′ E. It is not known at what time it was built, but it probably dates not later than the 14th century. The original building is said to have been of Hindu origin, but the Muhammadan or Marhattá governors of Orissa, in 1750, added a round bastion, and constructed an arched gateway in the eastern face of the fort. This

gateway, and a mosque called after Fateh Khán Raham, are almost the only portions of the citadel which remain intact, much of the stone in the fort having been used by the officers of the Public Works Department for Government buildings. An unsightly series of earthen mounds, and a wilderness of stone pits, now mark the place where the fortress stood. It had double walls, built of stone, the inner of which enclosed a rectangular area measuring 2150 by 1800 feet. The eastern gateway was flanked by two lofty square towers, and from the centre of the fort rose a huge square bastion supporting a flagstaff. Altogether the appearance of the edifice was very imposing, and presented to the imagination of M. la Motte, who travelled through Orissa in 1767, some resemblance to Windsor Castle. The fort was captured by the English in 1803, in their campaign against the Marhattás.

Báráchati.—Village on the Grand Trunk Road, 20 miles south of Gayá, in Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 30′ 10″ N., long. 85° 3′ 10″ E. Has a local police of 18 men. There used to be good shooting near here, and tigers are still met with in the neighbourhood. There is a *dák* bungalow.

Bara Dehi.—The highest of the four chief peaks of the Assiá range of hills in Cuttack District, Bengal. At the foot of the mountain is the seat of the old hill chieftain.

Bárágái (or *Marang Buru*).—A hill in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. Height above the sea, 3445 feet; above the Chutiá Nágpur plateau, 1300 feet; and above the Dámodar valley, 2400 feet. Lat. 23° 32′ 45″ N., long. 85° 29′ 45″ E. There is a good deal of *júm* cultivation on the upper slopes of the hill.

Barágaon.—Town in Sitapur District, Oudh; 17 miles north-west from Sitapur town. Pop. (1869), 2066. Bi-weekly market, at which cotton, salt, and iron from the North-Western Provinces are sold, and also cloth and sugar of local manufacture. Annual value of sales estimated at £5785. Government school.

Bárah.—*Tahsíl* of Allahabad District, North-Western Provinces, in a rugged country south of the Jumna (Jamuná), stretching upward to the Káimur Hills. Area, 247 square miles, of which 150 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 61,241 souls; land revenue, £15,265; total revenue, £16,676; rental paid by cultivators, £24,738; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. $11\frac{1}{8}$d.

Bárah.—Rural town in Ghazipur District, North-Western Provinces; lies on the alluvial plain of the Ganges. Lat. 25° 30′ 30″ N., long. 83° 54′ 15″ E.; area, 139 acres; pop. (1872), 5424 souls.

Barail.—Hill range which forms the north boundary of Cachar District, Assam Province, connecting the Khási hill system with Manipur; lying between 25° and 25° 32′ N. lat., and between 93° 9′ and 93° 46′

E. long. The height varies from 2500 to 6000 feet. Many spurs are thrown out southwards, between which hill torrents flow towards the Barák. The rocky strata beneath are covered with vegetable mould, and clothed with dense forest.

Barák (or *Surmá*).—River of North-Eastern India, which waters the southern valley of the Province of Assam, comprising the Districts of Cachar and Sylhet. Its source lies among the unexplored mountains occupied by the wild tribe of Angámí Nágás in the north-west of the State of Manipur. For about 180 miles it flows in a narrow valley, shut in between steep hills, in a south-south-west direction, until it touches British territory at the village of Tipái-mukh. Here it is joined by the Tipái river from the south, and abruptly turns due north, forming for some distance the boundary between Cachar District and Manipur. On entering Cachar a little above Bánskándi it immediately becomes navigable. Its general course now lies almost due west through the two Districts of Cachar and Sylhet, but it describes many windings and large loops, some of which have been cut across and converted into marshes by recent floods. At the boundary between Cachar and Sylhet, near the village of Bángá, it bifurcates into two branches, the larger and more northerly of which takes the name of the Surmá, the smaller and southerly branch being called the Kusiyára. After meandering with many sinuosities across Sylhet, both these branches ultimately fall into the Meghná on the border of Maimansinh District. The Barák receives many tributaries on either bank, from the Khási and Jaintiá Hills on the north, and from Tipperah on the south. The chief of these, proceeding downwards, are the Jiri, Chiri, Játingá, Chengar Khál, and Páinda on the right bank; and the Sonái, Ghágra, Dhaleswari, and Kátákhál on the left. All these are navigable throughout the year by country boats. The Barák itself is a river of the first importance for navigation. Within British territory its bed averages from 100 to 200 yards in width, and its minimum depth is 3½ feet of water. As is the case with all great rivers flowing through low-lying alluvial country, its banks have been raised by successive deposits of silt to a higher level than that of the surrounding plain. Consequently, when the Barák itself and its tributary streams come down in flood, and the depth of water in its bed suddenly rises to as much as 40 feet, the inundation spreads far and wide over the plain. The fields annually fertilized in this manner do not need any artificial irrigation; and it is thought that the natural line of drainage would only be hindered by the construction of embankments. The Barák forms the single means of communication between the Districts of Sylhet and Cachar and the outer world. The steamers of the India General Steam Navigation Company have stopping-places at the following marts, proceeding downwards:—Silchar,

Siáltekh, Kálinchará, Badarpur, Kateriál, Chhátak, and Sylhet town. The main river and its tributaries are crowded with country boats, which require to be towed up against the stream. The chief obstacles to navigation are snags in the river bed, and two *banks* or rapids formed by a contraction in the channel. In 1876-77, the river trade of Cachar and Sylhet Districts, as registered at Bhairab Bázár on the Meghná, showed a total of exports valued at £1,109,574, against imports valued at £532,212. The most important item on the export side is 5,369,200 lbs. of tea. There is a Government toll station at Siáltekh in Cachar District, where timber, bamboos, etc., pay toll to the amount of about £1500 a year.

Barákhar. — River in Bengal. Rises on the north face of the central plateau of Chutiá Nágpur; flows in a northerly direction as far as the Grand Trunk Road, after crossing which it turns east and then south-east, until it leaves Hazáribágh District and enters Mánbhúm. About 32 miles from the point where it leaves Hazáribágh it joins the Dámodar, on the boundary of Bardwán and Mánbhúm Districts, close to the village of Niámatpur. In its course through Mánbhúm District it recrosses the Grand Trunk Road about 3 miles above the point of junction with the Dámodar. Though everywhere fordable during the dry season, it is remarkable for the suddenness with which it rises during the rains, as well as for the strength of its current. Boat traffic is impossible. Principal tributary, the Khudiá in Mánbhúm.

Barakila and Talibunda.—The highest peaks of the range on which the citadel of Adoni stands, Bellary District, Madras. Height, 800 feet above the plain. Half-way up is a fine tank which is never dry, and on the summit grows a fig-tree forming a landmark for 20 or 30 miles in every direction.

Barakudu.—A division (*muttá*) of the Godairi *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras. The Godairi estate, containing 150 villages, is among those proscribed by the Meriah Agency as addicted to human sacrifice.—*See* GODAIRI.

Barakuliá Khál.—River in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, forming part of the Outer Sundarbans Passage, one of the chief boat-routes by means of which traffic is carried on between Calcutta and the Eastern Districts. An artificial water-course, the Sáhib Khálí, connects the Barakuliá with the Kálindí river.

Baral. — River in Bengal, an important offshoot of the Ganges in Rájsháhí District. It leaves the parent stream near Charghát police station, and flows eastward through the southern portion of the District, until it passes into Pabná. It was formerly navigable throughout the year, but during the present century a sandbank has formed across its mouth, obstructing the free passage of water from the Ganges for six or seven months of every year. The Baral throws

out two offshoots to the north, the Musá Khán and the Nandákujá, the latter a river of some magnitude, which joins the Atrai a short distance to the north of the Chalan *bíl.*

Bárá Láchá.—Mountain pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Western Himálayas, from Dáreha in Láhaul to the Rúpshú country in Ladákh. Lat. 32° 49′ N., long. 77° 28′ E.; elevation above the sea, 16,500 feet. Can be crossed by laden yaks and ponies. An excellent cart road might be constructed without difficulty.

Bar-Ali. — Old raised road or *ali* in Sibságar District, Assam Province, running from Názira to Dikhu-mukh. Length, 22 miles; annual cost of maintenance, £100. Much of the original embankment, constructed by forced labour under the Aham dynasty, has been cut away by floods of the Brahmaputra.

Báramahál ('*The Twelve Estates*').—A former Division, including parts or all of the Tripatúr, Kistnagiri, Darampúr, Uttankarai, Osúr, and Denkamkotai *táluks* of the present Salem and North Arcot Districts, Madras. Lat. 12° 5′ to 12° 45′ N., long. 78° 10′ to 79° 30′ E. Twelve forts—Krishnagiri, Jaya Rangarh, Varangarh, Kávalgarh, Máhárájgarh, Bujangarh, Gajangarh, Kattiragarh, Tripatúr, Vániembadi, Sathárasangarh, and Thatukallu—protected the tract, and on either side of it ran the Gháts. Originally part of the Vizayanagar domains, and governed by the Anagundi branch of that family, it passed in 1668 under the Mysore rule. Early in the next century the Pathán Nawábs of Karpa possessed themselves of the Báramahál, but, after a tenure of some fifty years, were ousted by Haidar Alí in 1759. The following year saw the Marhattás masters of the country, but after their defeat at Panipat, Haidar re-entered on possession. In 1767 an English force invested Krishnagiri, but was driven back after a gallant struggle by the troops of Haidar and the Nizam. Reinforcements met the retiring force in the Chenganna Pass, and a few months later the English troops, attacking at two points, invaded the Báramahál and occupied several of its forts. Twice again, in 1790 and 1791, armies were despatched to reduce the tract, but one fortress, that of Krishnagiri, withstood all assaults. In 1792 the Báramahál was ceded to the English, and the name, under the new territorial division, was soon abandoned.

Bárámati.—Municipal town in Poona District, Bombay. Lat. 18° 8′ 30″ N., long. 74° 36′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 4975; municipal revenue (1874-75), £252; rate of taxation, 1s. per head.

Barambá.—One of the Tributary States of Orissa, lying between 20° 22′ 15″ and 20° 31′ 40″ N. lat., and between 85° 15′ and 85° 31′ 30″ E. long.; area, 134 square miles; pop. (1872), 24,261. It is entirely surrounded by other Tributary States, being bounded on the north by Hindol, on the east by Tigariá, on the south by Bánki and Khandpárá (the boundary-line being formed by the Mahánadí river), and on the

west by Narsinhpur. Kanaká Peak (2038 feet), the highest point of the hill range of the same name, is situated on the northern border of the State.

A legend attributes the foundation of the State to a celebrated wrestler, to whom the Orissa monarch presented two villages. These villages were owned and inhabited by Kandhs, but the wrestler speedily drove out the aborigines, and gradually extended his territory at their expense. The present ruler, Rájá Dasarathí Bírbar Mangráj Mahápatra, claims to be a Kshattriya by caste, and is the 19th Rájá in descent from the original chief. The State yields him an estimated revenue of £2600, and he pays £140 tribute to the British Government. He maintains a military force of 652 men, and his police are 188 strong. He also supports a school.

The population of Barambá, numbering, as has been said, 24,261 persons, inhabit 137 villages and 4950 houses. The number of Hindus is 21,055, or 86·8 per cent. of the population; of Muhammadans there are only 67; and the number of 'others' is 3139. Number of males, 12,110, or 49·9 per cent. of the population. Average density of the population, 181 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·02; persons per village, 177; houses per square mile, 37; persons per house, 4·9. Ethnically the population is divided as follows:—Aboriginal tribes, 3024, consisting of Kandhs (1086), Savars (1016), and Taálas (922); semi-Hinduized aborigines, 3052, chiefly Páns (1956); Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin, 18,118, or 74·7 per cent. of the population, the most numerous castes being Chásás (4769), Bráhmans (1928), and Gaurs (1712); Muhammadans, 67. The principal village and the residence of the Rájá is Barambá, in the centre of the State (lat. 20° 25′ 15″ N.; long. 82° 22′ 41″ E.). The only other villages in the State worthy of notice are Gobirátpur, Máinabad, and Banálipur—all on the Mahánadí. At the two last-named villages trading fairs are held twice a week. The Mahánadí affords excellent water-carriage, and logs of timber and bamboos are floated down the river to Cuttack and Purí Districts.

Baramula.—Mountain gorge in Kashmir State, Punjab, through which the Jhelum (Jhilam) river passes. Lat. 34° 10′ N., long. 74° 30′ E. The town of Baramula stands on the right bank of the river, here spanned by a bridge of eight piers.

Baran.—*Tahsíl* of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; known also as *Bulandshahr Tahsíl*. Lies in the centre of the Doáb plain; intersected throughout by the Káli Nadi, and in two places by branches of the Ganges Canal. Area, 478 square miles, of which 346 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 264,365 souls; land revenue, £35,346; total revenue, £39,033; rental paid by cultivators, £90,585; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 3¾d.

Baran.—Headquarters town of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* BULANDSHAHR.

Baránagar.—Village on the Húglí river, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, about a mile north of Calcutta. Although at present a very insignificant village, it was formerly a Dutch factory, and during the greater part of last century Dutch vessels anchored here on their way to Chinsura. Originally it is said to have been a Portuguese settlement, and a place of considerable trade.

Bara-pol.—River in the State of Coorg, rises in a central plateau of the Western Gháts, and flows westwards through the Madras District of Malabar into the Arabian Sea. Its upper course lies amid deep gorges and wild forest scenery, and on the Coorg frontier it forms a nne waterfall. Its drainage area covers 192 square miles. In the District of Malabar it is navigable from its mouth, near the village of Chirakal, up to 16 miles from the foot of the Gháts. Its chief tributary is the Kalla-hól.

Bárásat.—Subdivision of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, lying between 22° 36′ 45″ and 22° 57′ 15″ N. lat., and between 88° 25′ and 88° 48′ E. long.; area, 389 square miles; number of villages, 697—of houses, 52,802; pop. (1872), 279,303, comprising 138,129 Hindus, or 49·5 per cent. of the population, 141,073 Muhammadans, 41 Christians, and 60 'others.' Average density of the population, 718 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·79; houses per square mile, 136; persons per village, 401; persons per house, 5·3. The Subdivision contains the *thánás* (police circles) of Bárásat, Degangá, Tábiriá, and Naihátí. In 1870-71 it contained one magisterial court, and a total police force of 891 men. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £7697. The Subdivision was formed in 1861, when the old District of this name was included in the Twenty-four Parganás.

Bárásat.—Municipality in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 43′ 24″ N., long. 88° 31′ 45″ E.; area in 1869, 6·9 square miles (since increased); pop. (1872), 11,822, comprising 6649 Hindus, 5133 Muhammadans, and 40 'others;' municipal income in 1872, £363; rate of municipal taxation, 7¼d. per head of population within municipal limits; police force for protection of the town, 24 men. Bárásat was until 1861 the seat of a joint-magistrate, several *parganás* transferred from Nadiyá and Jessor in 1834 being known as 'Bárásat District.' In 1861 the joint-magistracy was abolished, and Bárásat became one of the Subdivisions of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás.

Barasia River.—A branch of the Madhumatí river in Jessor District, Bengal; flows north and south, leaving the parent stream at Khálpárá and rejoining it at Lohágará. Length, 25 miles; breadth in the rains, 230 yards. Navigable throughout the year by large boats.

Baraunda.—Petty State in Bundelkhand, also called Pather-Kuchar. Area, 230 square miles; pop. (1875), about 14,000 souls; estimated revenue, £2800. The Rájá, Rangbir Dyál, is a Rájput of very ancient lineage. The family was confirmed in the territory by the British Government under a *sanad* in 1807. The Rájá has the right of adoption. His military force consists of 20 horse, 170 infantry and police, and 3 guns. Chief town, Baraunda. Lat. 25° 2′ 5″ N., long. 80° 40′ 25″ E.

Barbaspur.—Chiefship attached to Raipur District, Central Provinces; about 60 miles north-west of Raipur, lying between 21° 40′ 45″ and 21° 43′ N. lat., and between 81° 10′ 15″ and 81° 12′ 30″ E. long. Consists of 22 villages, and formerly composed part of the Gandai estate. The chief is a Gond.

Bárbighá.—Town in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 14′ N., long. 85° 49′ E.; area. 623 acres; pop. (1872), 6362, comprising 5277 Hindus and 1085 Muhammadans; number of houses, 774.

Barda (or *Jaitwar*).—A Division of Káthiáwár, Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 21° 11′ and 21° 57′ N. lat., and between 69° 30′ and 70° 7′ E. long.; estimated area, 570 square miles; estimated pop. 46,980. Bounded north and north-east by Hállár, east by Sorath, and south-west by the Arabian Sea—the coast extending from north-west to south-east a distance of 63 miles. The District belongs to the Rāná of Porbandar.

Barda Hills.—From 12 to 18 miles distant from the coast, near Porbandar, in Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay; form a circular cluster about 30 miles in circumference, and visible from a distance of from 25 to 30 miles. From the north they appear grouped in three distinct peaks. That most towards the left, called Venu, is the highest, rising to about 1730 feet above the sea. The well-watered and bamboo-covered slopes of the Barda Hills formed in disturbed times a favourite refuge for outlaws.

Bardhá.—Large village in Damoh District, Central Provinces; 21 miles north-west of Hatta. Pop. over 1000; area attached, 17,531 acres, being the largest estate in Damoh District. A police outpost.

Bardwán (sometimes spelt *Burdwan*, correctly *Vardhamána*).—A Division or Commissionership under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 21° 36′ 45″ and 24° 9′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 35′ 45″ and 88° 32′ 45″ E. long.; area, 12,719 square miles; pop. (1872), 7,286,957 souls. Comprises the five Districts of BARDWAN, HUGLI with HOWRAH, MIDNAPUR, BANKURA, and BIRBHUM (all of which see separately). It is bounded on the north by the Districts of the Santál Parganás and Murshidabad, on the east by the Districts of Nadiyá and the Twenty-four Parganás, on the south by the Bay of Bengal, and on the west by Morbhanj State and Mánbhúm District. Number of

towns and villages, 25,842; number of houses, 1,468,791. The population consists of 6,216,060 Hindus (85·3 per cent. of total population), 929,391 Muhammadans, 4405 Christians, and 137,101 'others.' Average density of population, 573 per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·03; houses per square mile, 115; persons per village, 282—per house, 5. Number of males, 3,572,108, or 49 per cent. of the total population.

Bardwán (*Burdwan*). — A British District under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lying between 22° 46′ and 23° 53′ N. lat., and between 86° 52′ and 88° 27′ 30″ E. long.; area, 3523 square miles (exclusive of 65 square miles of river channels); population, according to the Census of 1872, 2,034,745 souls. It is bounded on the north by the Santál Parganás, and by Bírbhúm and Murshidabad Districts; on the east by Nadiyá District, the boundary line for nearly the whole distance being formed by the Bhágirathí or Húglí river; on the south by the Districts of Húglí and Midnapur; and on the west by the Districts of Bánkurá and Mánbhúm.

Physical Aspects.—The District is for the most part flat, and the scenery tame and uninteresting; the only exception being the north-western corner adjoining the Santál Parganás, where the country is undulating and covered with jungle, which gives shelter to tigers, leopards, wolves, and other wild animals. Except in this corner of the District, the land is covered with large rice fields, and studded with little hamlets hidden among clumps of bamboos, palms, plantains, and mangoes. The soil consists of an alluvial deposit of great depth. There are no hills in the District. The principal rivers which flow through Bardwán are the Dámodar, the Dhalkisor or Dwárkeswar, the Kharí, and the Ajai, all of which eventually join the Bhágirathí or Húglí. The Dámodar marks a portion of the western boundary of the District, and the Ajai forms a natural boundary line for some distance on the north. The Barákhar, too, though not properly speaking a river of Bardwán, flows for a short distance along its north-west boundary and separates it from Mánbhúm District until it falls into the Dámodar. A number of small tributaries of these rivers rise in and flow through the District, and a network of small creeks and water-courses intersects the country. A curious change in the course of the Bhágirathí took place in the beginning of this century, when the stream suddenly changed its course and left the town of Nadiyá, which was formerly on the east bank, a considerable distance on the west. With this exception, no great changes have recently taken place in the river courses of this District.

History.—Bardwán is first mentioned in Muhammadan histories in 1574, in which year, after Dáúd Khán's defeat and death at Rájmahál, his family was captured in the town of Bardwán by Akbar's troops. About ten years later, the District formed the scene of several engage-

ments between Kuttu, the son of Dáúd Khán, and the imperialist forces. In 1624, Prince Kharram, afterwards the Emperor Sháh Jahán, captured the fort and town of Bardwán. Soon afterwards, the founder of the Bardwán family (Abu Rái, a Kshattriya by caste) immigrated into Bengal from the Punjab, and settled in Bardwán. Henceforth the history of the District is identical with that of the ruling family. Abu Rái was in 1657 appointed *Chaudhrí*, and afterwards became a *Faujdár* or military commander under the Muhammadan Government. The estate rapidly increased in size, and Abu Rái's great-grandson, Krishná Rám Rái, obtained a *farmán* from the Emperor Aurangzeb. It was in the reign of this Emperor (1696) that Subah Sinh, a Bardwán *tálukdár*, raised the standard of rebellion against the empire, and, assisted by Rahím Khán, an Afghán chief, slew in battle the Rájá of Bardwán and captured his whole family except one son, Jagat Rám Rái. Subah Sinh was stabbed by one of the Rájá's daughters, whom he attempted to outrage. Jagat Rám Rái succeeded his father, and was in turn succeeded by his son, Kirtti Chandrá Rái, a daring and adventurous man, who largely increased the *zamíndárí* by adding to it the estates of the Rájás of Chandrakoná, Bardá, and Balghará, whom he dispossessed after conquering them in fight. He also attacked and defeated Badyajáma, the powerful Rájá of Bishnupur, with whom, however, he afterwards became reconciled. In the beginning of the 18th century the Marhattás, after plundering the Western Districts, made their appearance in Bardwán, encamping at Kátwá, and Badyajáma and Jagat Rái assisted the Nawáb to drive them out. This was no easy task; and in the time of the Mahárájá Tilak Chandra Rái (1744–71), who succeeded Jagat Rái's son, the invaders, having laid waste the border principalities, overran Bardwán. 'How can I relate to you,' writes the Mahárájá to the English authorities, 'the present deplorable situation of this place! Three months the Marhattás remained here, burning, plundering, and laying waste the whole country; but now, thank God, they have all gone, but the inhabitants are not yet returned. The inhabitants have lost almost all they were worth!' Grievous as was the state of affairs thus disclosed, the sufferings of Bardwán at the hands of the Marhattás were insignificant compared with those of Bírbhúm, where the dry soil and fine undulating surface afforded precisely the riding-ground which their cavalry loved. The swampy nature of the country in Bardwán protected it to a great extent, and the District would have rapidly recovered from the predatory incursions referred to, had it not been subjected to natural scourges scarcely less terrible than the Marhattá horse. The great dearth of 1770 affected the District most disastrously. The Mahárájá died in the midst of the desolation, and his heir had to melt down the household

ornaments and beg a loan from Government in order to perform the funeral ceremonies. For the next twenty years the family remained in a state of chronic debt, and the relations between the Rájás and the English authorities were of the most troublesome and unsatisfactory character. The Permanent Settlement (1793) brought about a new order of things, and, after a long period of poverty and ruin, Mahárájá Tej Chandra restored the financial position of the family. He was succeeded in 1833 by the present Mahárájá, Mahtáb Chandra, who has managed the estates with so much success that the house is now again one of the most prosperous in Bengal. The Mahárájá assisted the English authorities in the Santál Rebellion in 1855, and during the Mutiny of 1857 he did everything in his power to strengthen the hands of the Government, by placing elephants and bullock-carts at the disposal of the authorities, and keeping open the roads from Bardwán to Bírbhúm and Kátwá, so that there was no interruption of intelligence between the seat of Government and the anxiously watched stations of Bírbhúm and Barhampur. Many changes have taken place in the jurisdiction of the District of Bardwán. When it was ceded to the English in 1760 by Mír Kásim Khán, together with Midnapur and Chittagong, it comprised, in addition to the present District known as Bardwán, those of Bánkurá and Húglí, and a third part of Bírbhúm. Bánkurá and Húglí were afterwards made separate Districts, and after a number of transfers to and from the adjoining Districts, the present area of Bardwán was finally settled in 1872.

Population.—The population of Bardwán, according to the Census of 1872, is 2,034,745 persons, dwelling in 5191 villages, and 435,416 houses; the average pressure of the population on the soil being 578 to the square mile. The great majority of the inhabitants—1,679,363, or 82·5 per cent. of the total population—are Hindus. The Muhammadans number 348,024, or only 17·1 per cent. The total number of Christians at the time of the Census was 890, of whom 357 were natives. There are 160,824 Bráhmans, 12,359 Rájputs, and 53,398 Káyasths in the District. The trading castes number 62,343; agricultural and pastoral castes, 433,758 (including the most numerous castes in the District, namely the Sadgops, of whom there are 185,804); and the artisan castes, 231,104. Of the total adult male population of 661,779, about two-thirds, or 439,446, are engaged in agriculture or with animals, or are returned as 'labourers;' 34,508 are employed in commerce and trade; 39,333 are in service or perform personal offices; 14,560 are unemployed. Of the total adult female population of 775,185, by far the greater number (714,078) are unemployed; nearly 25,000 are employed in agriculture; and 22,775 in manufactures. The number of male children is 334,039, and of female children 263,742. Although there are eight towns in the District containing each more

than 5000 inhabitants, the general population is almost entirely rural; and indeed these towns are themselves merely large clusters of villages grouped together into municipalities. They are:—BARDWAN (population, 32,321); KALNA, or Culna (pop. 27,336); SYAMBAZAR (pop. 19,635); RANIGANJ (pop. 19,578); JAHANABAD (pop. 13,409); BALI (pop. 8819); KATWA, or Cutwa (pop. 7963); and DAIN-HAT (pop. 7562). The total urban population thus disclosed is 136,623, the balance of 1,898,122 forming the rural population. Bardwán is the principal town and civil station of the District, and was formerly the headquarters of the Commissioner of the Division; it contains the palace and fine gardens of the Mahárájá; the Siválaya, a collection of 108 temples arranged in two circles; and the shrine of Pírbaharam. The municipality of Bardwán is composed of 93 little villages lying close to each other and surrounding the town proper. Kálná (Culna), the port and principal seat of trade of the District, is on the Bhágirathí; in Muhammadan times it must have been a place of importance, as the ruins of a large fort are still to be seen; the Mahárájá of Bardwán has a palace here. Ráníganj, on the Dámodar, is principally interesting as being the centre of the coal industry of the District, an account of which will be found in another section (*infra*). Kátwá (Cutwa) is situated at the confluence of the Bhágirathí and Ajai rivers, and is one of the chief centres of trade in the District; in former times it was defended by a fort of which scarcely a vestige remains, and was regarded as the key to Murshidabad, the capital of Bengal under the later Muhammadan governors. It was here that Chaitanya took upon himself the ascetic life, and the place is consequently considered sacred by the Vaishnavs.

Agriculture.—The principal crop in Bardwán, as in other Districts of Bengal, is rice. The *áus* or autumn crop is sown in May and reaped in August or September; and the *áman* or *haimantik* (winter) crop is sown in June or July and reaped in November or December. *Aman* rice requires much water, and is always sown on *sálí* or low-lying land, which retains more or less moisture all the time the crop is in the ground; it is always transplanted. *Aus* rice, on the other hand, is grown on *soná* land, which is higher and therefore drier than *sálí*. A fair out-turn from lands paying a rent of 18s. an acre would be 22 to 35 cwts. of unhusked paddy per acre, worth from £1, 10s. to £2, 8s. The rates of rent vary greatly in the different Subdivisions of the District, as well as for the different kinds of land. The rental of *soná* land, which generally gives two crops in the year, varies from 9s. an acre for fourth-class to £1 16s. per acre for first-class land; and for *sálí*, or one-crop land, from 4s. 6d. for fourth-class to 18s. for first-class land. Among the other crops raised in the District, are wheat, barley, gram, peas, mustard, *tíl*

castor-oil, sugar-cane, mulberry, *pán*, potatoes, hemp, cotton, and indigo. There are two indigo crops; the spring indigo gives the best out-turn, but the yield is very precarious, depending almost entirely on a regular alternation of sunny and showery weather during the time the plant is on the ground. Scientific irrigation is unknown in the District, but it is a common custom to dam up the lesser streams with a view to the irrigation of the neighbouring fields; and the systematic obstruction of the drainage channels by this practice is said to be one of the causes of the prevalence of the fever which devastates the District. Manure is abundantly used, and consists principally of cow-dung, tank-deposits, and oil-cake. Wages generally have much increased of late years, and especially since the railway works were commenced. Agricultural labourers now get 3¾d. or 4d. a day, and smiths and carpenters 6d. a day, or double the former rates of wages. Cheapness of food does not seem to result in any corresponding fluctuation in the rates of wages; in 1871-72, for example, food was generally cheap, but the price of labour did not fall. The price of the best cleaned rice in that year was 8s. 10d. a cwt., and of coarse rice 4s. 5d. a cwt. There seems to have been an increase in the prices of rice, but there are no materials previous to 1870 from which a correct estimate can be formed; the only earlier year for which there are figures is 1862, when the average price of coarse rice in Bardwán town was 3s. 3⅛d. a cwt. Bardwán District contains 1343 *lákhiráj* or rent-free tenures, comprising an area of 75,343 acres. The service tenures of the District include nearly 200 *ghátwáli* holdings, the nature of which is described in the article on BANKURA DISTRICT.

Natural Calamities.—Before the construction of the railway and the Dámodar embankment, floods were common in Bardwán; in 1770, 1823, and 1855, serious inundations occurred, causing great damage to property and loss of life. The Dámodar and other embankments, which have been constructed by and are under the control of the Government, have secured for the District immunity from this calamity. Drought, occasioned by insufficient rainfall, occasionally occurs; and as there is no system of artificial irrigation, and little marsh land in the District capable of being brought into cultivation in a year of drought, such a calamity is in no way provided against. Bardwán suffered severely in the famine of 1866, although the generally prosperous condition of the cultivating classes enabled them to oppose a great power of resistance. In March 1866, coarse rice, which usually sells at 3s. 5d. to 5s. 10d. a cwt., was selling at 12s. 3d., and in June the price had risen to 13s. 8d. a cwt. The total amount expended on relief was £1455. An equal amount was disbursed by the Mahárájá, and an additional sum of £483 was granted, and £421 advanced, for special works. The average daily number of paupers relieved (exclusive of town paupers

supported by the liberality of the Mahárájá) was 845 in July, 1490 in August, and 327 in September. The maximum price of common husked rice was 14s. 9d. per cwt., and of unhusked rice about half that amount.

Commerce and Trade.—The means of communication in Bardwán, except in certain tracts bordering on Húglí and Bánkurá, are sufficient. The roads are on the whole in fairly good condition, and the East India Railway has two main lines running through the District, with stations at Memári, Sáktigarh, Bardwán, Kánu Junction, Mánkur, Pánágarh, Durgápur, Andál, Ráníganj Siársol, Nimchá, Asansol, Sitárámpur, Gushkhará, and Bhediá. Several of these places, from being small villages, have developed, since the opening of the railway, into thriving centres of trade. The principal manufacture of the District is the weaving of silk *sárís* and *dhutís;* there is also a considerable number of workers in gold, silver, and brass. The local manufactures as well as the District crops are more than sufficient to meet the demand of the local markets, and are largely exported. The chief articles of export are rice, tobacco, pulses of all kinds, wheat, rape-seed, oil-cake, jute, sugar, salt, English and country-made cloth, cotton, etc.; the principal imports consist of English piece-goods, manufactured iron, salt, spices, cocoa-nuts, and castor-oil.

Coal.—The Ráníganj Subdivision of Bardwán District is noted for its coal mines, of which the principal are at Egerá, Harishpur, Bábusol, Nimchá, Pari-hazárí, Siársol, Tapasí, Dhosál, Chaukídángá, Jujánokí, Banbáhál, Sibpur, Banálí, Mangalpur, Bánsrá, Raghunátchak, Jenrá, Nijá, and Sankarpur. Most of these belong to companies which have their head offices at Calcutta. A full account of this industry will be found in the article on RANIGANJ. The coal-field extends from a few miles east of the town of Ráníganj to several miles west of the Barákhar river, the greatest length from east to west being about 30 miles, and the greatest breadth from north to south about 18 miles. The area included by the coal-bearing strata is estimated at about 500 square miles. The mineral is described as 'a non-coking bituminous coal, composed of distinct laminæ of a bright jetty coal and of a dull, more earthy rock.' The average amount of ash is from 14 to 15 per cent., varying from 8 to 25 per cent. The miners are chiefly semi-aboriginal or aboriginal castes, such as Báurís or Santáls, but low-caste Hindus and the poorer class of Muhammadans also work in the collieries. Their pay is high, and even in 1860 a miner's family, consisting of a man and his wife with three children, earned 18s. or even more a month, being about double the wage of an ordinary peasant or day-labourer at present. In 1872 there were altogether 44 coal mines at work in the District, of which 19 turned out upwards of 10,000 tons each per annum. The greatest out-turn was in 1868, when 564,933

tons were raised, but this is above the average. The chief objections to the employment of Ránígan coal in India are—(1) its non-coking property; (2) the small proportion it contains of fixed carbon, on which the value of coal for heating purposes depends; (3) the large proportion of ash, a greater quantity of Rániganj coal being required to do the same work as good English coal; and (4) its liability to spontaneous combustion, due to the large proportion of iron pyrites it contains. It has been proved practically that no Indian coal can do more than two-thirds, while most of it does not do more than one-half, the work of English coal. The present price of Rániganj coal varies from £1, 2s. 3d. to £1, 5s. 7d. a ton in Calcutta. The question of its suitability for blast furnaces for the manufacture of iron from the rich clay iron and deposits of magnetic iron which abound in the neighbourhood, has not yet been settled; one of the principal drawbacks is the great scarcity of flux. The whole matter, however, is too extensive to be noticed in a short article, and the reader is referred to vol. iv. of the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (pp. 107-133) for a full discussion of the subject, which is of very great importance and seriously affects the future of Rániganj.

Administration.—It is impossible to compare in a satisfactory manner the revenue and expenditure of the District at different periods, because of the numerous and important changes which have taken place in the constitution and area of the District since its cession to the Company in 1760. In 1870-71, the total net revenue of the District from all sources amounted to £388,773, and the net civil expenditure to £64,435. Since then, the area of the District has been increased by transfers from Húglí and Bánkurá, and the present revenue is probably much greater. The total land revenue in 1760 was returned at £243,891; in 1871, it amounted to £303,970, equal to an average payment of £61, 8s. 10d. by each of the 4947 estates, or £47, 17s. 1d. by each of the 6352 individual proprietors or coparceners. For the reason already given, it is impossible to compare the protection at present afforded to person and property with that at former periods. The police of the District, at the end of 1872, consisted of a regular police force of 2 superior and 118 subordinate officers, and 511 constables, maintained at a cost of £11,652; a municipal force of 24 officers and 373 men, costing £322; and a village watch of 11,647 men, maintained (by grants of land, and in some cases also by money contributions from the villagers) at an estimated cost of £23,296: total police force of all kinds, 12,675 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every 160 of the population, maintained at an aggregate cost of £38,169, equal to 4½d. per head of the population. There are 22 *thánás* or police stations in the District. The total number of cases 'cognisable' and 'non-

cognisable,' investigated during the year 1872 was 4787, in which 3227 persons were convicted. There are 6 jails in the District; the average daily number of prisoners was, in 1872, 263·78, or 1 person always in jail to every 7713 of the population. The educational statistics show that much progress has been made during the last few years. In 1856-57, the District as then constituted contained 23 schools, with 1681 pupils; in 1870-71, the number of schools was 305, and of pupils 12,855; the total cost of Government and aided schools in the former year was £915, and in the latter £10,630. For administrative purposes Bardwán District is divided into six Subdivisions, namely:—(1) the *Sadr* or Headquarters Subdivision; (2) Kálná; (3) Búd-búd; (4) Kátwá; (5) Ráníganj; and (6) Jahánabad. These, again, are subdivided into 59 fiscal divisions (*parganás*). The gross municipal income of the eight municipalities already named was, in 1872, £9107, and the municipal expenditure, £8891; rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 4d. per head of the population.

Medical Aspects.—The average annual temperature of Bardwán is 81° F., and the annual rainfall, 60·31 inches. Since 1866, the District has suffered very seriously from the ravages of endemic fever. The disease seems to have first broken out about 1824 in the village of Muhammadpur in Jessor District, whence it has gradually extended in a north-westerly direction through Nadiyá, the Twenty-four Parganás, and Húglí, until, in 1863, it made its first appearance in the south-east of Bardwán District. In 1866 and the three following years it committed great havoc, and it has ever since continued its ravages, with little, if any abatement (?). It is described as 'an exaggerated and congestive form of malarious fever, most frequently of the intermittent type, generally assuming the most intense and asthenic character in localities where the recognised predisposing causes of the disease preponderate most.' Many different causes have been assigned for the outbreak, some supposing it to result from the interference with the natural drainage of the country by river and railway embankments, by changes in the courses of the large rivers, and by the silting and drying up of the channels of the small streams; while others attribute it to the drinking water or defective sanitation, etc.; and others, again, believe that some influence is at work, the operation of which is not fully understood. Whatever the cause may be, the results are deplorable. The mortality caused by the fever has been estimated at about one-third of the population, and in some parts of the District the proportion is even greater, instances having been given in which 40 and even 50 per cent. of the population were carried off. The Government has adopted remedial measures on a large scale. In December 1872, 56 dispensaries were open in the District, some of them being necessarily within a mile of each other, and the cost of quinine used in that year alone was £4352,

about 100 lbs. being used per month. In the same year, 33 food dépôts were opened, the total number of persons relieved being 105,748, and the daily average attendance, 280. The Civil Surgeon has tried to substitute other remedies for quinine, but without much success. Carbolic acid and carbazotate of ammonia have been tried without satisfactory results, but the maiden-hair fern was found to possess very valuable properties, being useful in cases where quinine failed. The statistics of mortality have been omitted in this article, as the Civil Surgeon does not think them trustworthy, but enough has been said to show how appalling have been the ravages of this terrible fever, in consequence of which the average number of inmates per house is actually smaller throughout the District now than it was in 1814.

Bardwán.—The headquarters Subdivision of the District of the same name in Bengal, lying between 22° 57′ 30″ and 23° 32′ N. lat., and between 87° 32′ 45″ and 88° 16′ 45″ E. long.; area, 841 square miles, with 1279 villages and 113,629 houses; pop. (1872), 496,966, comprising 387,783 Hindus (or 78·1 per cent. of the Subdivisional population), 108,746 Muhammadans, 230 Christians, and 207 'others.' Average density of population, 590 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·52; persons per village, 389; houses per square mile, 135; persons per house, 4·4. The Subdivision contains 6 *thánás* (police circles). In 1870 there were 6 magisterial and revenue courts; and the total police force consisted of 4056 men, including village watch. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £12,613.

Bardwán Municipality.—Principal town and civil station of the District of the same name, situated on the Bánká *nadí*. Lat. 23° 14′ 10″ N., long. 87° 53′ 55″ E.; pop. (1872), 32,321, comprising 22,013 Hindus (or 68·1 per cent. of total population), 9927 Muhammadans, 223 Christians, and 158 'others.' Municipal revenue in 1871, £5450; average rate of taxation, 3s. 4⅜d. per head. The town has suffered very severely from the fever which has been ravaging the District since 1863, and of which an account will be found in the article on BARDWAN DISTRICT. In 1814, the number of houses in the town and suburbs was returned at 9805, containing an estimated population of 53,927, calculated on an average of 5½ persons per house. An experimental Census in 1869 showed that the number of houses in the town had increased to 14,048, inhabited by a total population of 46,121, or an average of only 3·28 persons to each house. An official report in 1870 says that 'notwithstanding all the efforts of Government and the municipality to repress the outbreak, the fever is estimated to have carried off at least 5000 of the inhabitants within six months.' The principal buildings in Bardwán are the palace of the Mahárájá, a fine large edifice, many of the apartments in which are furnished in European fashion; the Siválayá, a

collection of 108 temples arranged in two circles, one within the other; and the shrine of Pírbaharam. The town figures more than once in history, having been captured by Prince Kharram (afterwards the Emperor Sháh Jahán) in 1624, and again in 1695 by the Hindu rebel Subah Sinh, who slew the Rájá, and was soon afterwards himself killed by the Rája's daughter, whom he attempted to outrage. There is a station of the East Indian Railway at Bardwán; distance from Calcutta, 67 miles.

Bárdwár.—Forest reserve in the south of Kámrúp District, Assam Province; bounded west by the Kulsí river. Estimated area, 12,800 acres, or 20 square miles. The trees are chiefly *sál* (Shorea robusta). There is a second forest reserve to the north, with an additional area of 1440 acres, or 2·25 square miles.

Bareilly (*Bareli*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 1′ and 28° 54′ N. lat., and between 79° 1′ 15″ and 80° 29′ 30″ E. long.; area, 2982 square miles; population in 1872, 1,507,139 souls. Bareilly is a District of the Rohilkhand Division, and is bounded on the north by the Tarái, on the east by Nepál and Sháhjahánpur, on the south by Sháhjahánpur and Budaun, and on the west by Budaun and the Rámpur State. The administrative headquarters are at the town of Bareilly (Bareli).

Physical Aspects.—The District of Bareilly, though lying just below the last slopes of the Himalayas, forms itself a level plain, with no greater variety of surface than that caused by the shifting channels of its numerous streams. Hills or natural elevations nowhere break the general level, but the distinctions of upland and lowland are well marked, and the intervening terraces are everywhere conspicuous. The largest alluvial plain is that of the Rámganga, which reaches in one place a width of 16 miles. Over the whole of this broad valley, the river has wandered at various times, fertilizing the land through which it passed with rich deposits of vegetable mould. The difference in height between the lowlands and the central plain ranges from 10 to 25 feet; while the general elevation of the country rises gradually from 520 feet above sea-level in the extreme south, near Fatehganj, to 658 feet on the farthest northern boundary, just beneath the Tarái. The upland does not consist of a dead flat, but is composed of gentle undulations, occasionally rising into rolling sandhills. As a whole, however, the District may be described as a level tract, intersected by numerous rivers and thickly dotted with noble groves, which form the characteristic feature of the landscape. Almost every village possesses an abundant supply of mango and *shisham* trees, while many have beautiful plantations of bamboos. In seasons of drought elsewhere, the *khádir* or alluvial tract of Bareilly is clothed with magnificent crops. Inundations do more good than harm, by destroying the white

ants and depositing layers of fresh soil, which supply the place of manure. The District is naturally traversed by several sub-Himalayan streams, of which the chief are the Rámganga and the Deoha. The former river has deep and well-defined banks, but frequently changes its course through the friable alluvial channel in which it runs. Some twenty years since the main stream passed below Gaini, 10 miles west of the city; then it cut itself a path into the Dojora, and ran beneath the outskirts of Bareilly; and during the rains of 1871, it once more returned to its ancient bed. The Deoha, springing from the Kumaun Hills, is strongly impregnated with lime, which imparts a milky whiteness to its waters after heavy rains. The stalactites which it deposits form an article of commerce in Bareilly, Pilibhít, and Sháhjahánpur, where the lime bears a high reputation for purity. The other principal streams are the Baigul, the Nakatia, the Dioranian, the Sanka, the Sidha, the Dojora, the Kicha, and the Arail, many of which are used for purposes of irrigation.

History.—In the earliest times the country east of the Ganges, now known as Rohilkhand, bore the general name of Kather, but when Sambhal and Budaun were erected into separate governments by the Musalmáns, this term was restricted to the territory lying east of the Rámganga. A highly civilised Aryan race appears to have occupied the tract from the 8th to the 11th century, when they were probably driven out by Ahirs from the Nepál Hills, Bheels from the jungles to the south, and Bhars from the forests of Oudh, during the general expulsion of the Aryan settlers from the sub-Himalayan border. About 1200 A.D. the greater part of the District had relapsed into forest; but large primitive bricks, fragments of Buddhist sculpture, and other evidences of ancient prosperity still lie scattered about the country, especially in the neighbourhood of Fatehgarh and Rámnagar. Shaháb-ud-dín, or his general Kutb-ud-dín, captured Bangarh about the year 1194; but nothing more is heard of the Muhammadans in the District till Mahmúd II. made his way along the foot of the hills to the Rámganga in 1252. Fourteen years later, Balban, who succeeded him, marched to Kampil, put all the Hindus to the sword, and utterly crushed the Katheriyas, who had hitherto lived by violence and plunder. In 1290, Sultán Firoz invaded Kather again, and brought the country into final subjection to the Musalmán rule, which was not afterwards disputed except by the usual local revolts. Under the various dynasties which preceded the Mughal empire, the history of Kather consists of the common events which make up the annals of that period—constant attempts at independence on the part of the District governors, followed by barbarous suppressions on the part of the central authority. The city of Bareilly itself was founded in 1537 by Bas Deo and Barel Deo, from the latter of whom it takes its name. In 1628, Ali Kuli Khán was governor of Bareilly,

which had now grown into a considerable place. In 1657, Rájá Makrand Rai founded the new city of Bareilly, cut down the forest to the west of the old town, and expelled all the Katheriyas from the neighbourhood. A succession of regular governors followed during the palmy days of the great Mughal emperors; but after the death of Aurangzeb, in 1707, when the unwieldy organization began to break asunder, the Hindus of Bareilly threw off the imperial yoke, refused their tribute, and commenced a series of anarchic quarrels among themselves for the supremacy of the District. Their dissensions only afforded an opportunity for the rise of a new Muhammadan power. Alí Muhammad Khán, a leader of Rohillá Patháns, defeated the governors of Bareilly and Moradabad, and made himself supreme throughout the whole Kather region. In 1744 the Rohillá chieftain conquered Kumaun right up to Almora; but two years later, the Emperor Muhammad Sháh marched against him, and Alí Muhammad was taken a prisoner to Delhi. However, the empire was too much in need of vigorous generals to make his captivity a long one, and in 1750 he was restored to his old post in Kather. Next year he died, and a mausoleum at Aonla, in this District, still marks his burial-place. Háfiz Rahmat Khán, guardian to his sons, succeeded to the governorship of Rohilkhand, in spite of the opposition of the emperor, who despatched the Nawáb of Farrukhabad against him without effect. Háfiz defeated and slew the Nawáb, after which he marched northward and conquered Pilibhít and the Tarái. The Oudh Wazír, Safdar Jang, plundered the property of the Farrukhabad Nawáb after his death, and this led to a union of the Rohillá Afgháns with those of Farrukhabad. Háfiz defeated Safdar Jang, besieged Allahabad, and took part of Oudh; but the Wazír called in the aid of the Marhattás, and with them defeated the Rohillás at Bisauli, near Aonla. He then besieged them for four months at the foot of the hills; but owing to the invasion of Ahmad Sháh Duráni terms were arranged, and Háfiz was made governor of Pilibhít. After the accession of Shujá-ud-daulá as Wazír of Oudh, Háfiz joined the imperial troops in their attack upon that prince, but the Wazír bought them off by a subsidy of 5 lákhs. The Rohillá chieftain took advantage of Ahmad Sháh's inroad into the Doáb to make himself master of Etáwah, and during the eventful years in which Shujá-ud-daulá was engaged in his struggle with the British power, he continually strengthened himself by fortifying his towns and founding new strongholds. In 1770, Najíb-ud-daulá advanced with the Marhattá army under Sindhia and Holkár, defeated Háfiz and Zábita Khán, and forced the Rohillás to ask the aid of the Wazír. Shujá-ud-daulá became surety for a bond of 40 *lákhs*, by which the Marhattás were induced to evacuate Rohilkhand. This bond the Rohillás were unable to meet, whereupon Shujá-ud-daulá, after getting rid of the Marhattás, attacked

Rohilkhand with the help of an English force lent by Warren Hastings, and subjugated it by a desolating war. Háfiz Rahmat was slain, but Faiz-ullá, the son of Alí Muhammad, escaped to the north-west and became the leader of the Rohillás. After many negotiations he effected a treaty with Shujá-ud-daulá in 1774, by which he agreed to keep 9 *parganás* and 15 *lákhs* a year, giving up all the remainder of Rohilkhand to the Wazír (see RAMPUR). Sa'adat Ali was appointed governor of Bareilly under the Oudh Government. The District remained in the hands of the Wazír until 1801, when Rohilkhand, Allahabad, and Korah were ceded to the British in lieu of tribute. Mr. Henry Wellesley, brother of the Governor-General, was appointed President of the Board of Commissioners sitting at Bareilly. In 1805, Amír Khá, a Rohillá adventurer, made an inroad into Rohilkhand, but was defeated and driven off. Disturbances occurred in 1816, in 1837, and in 1842, but the peace of the District was not seriously endangered until the Mutiny of 1857. In that year the troops at Bareilly rose on the 31st of May. The European officers, except three, escaped to Naini Tal; and Khán Bahádur Khán, Háfiz Rahmat's grandson, was proclaimed Nawáb Názim of Rohilkhand. On the 11th of June the *sipáhis* went off to Delhi, and Khán Bahádur organized a government in July. Three expeditions attempted to attack Naini Tal, but without success. At the beginning of November came news of the fall of Delhi. Walidád Khán, the rebel leader in Bulandshahr, and the Nawáb of Fatehgarh then took refuge at Bareilly. A fourth expedition against Naini Tal met with no greater success than the earlier attempts. On the 25th of March 1858 the Náná Sáhib arrived at Bareilly on his flight from Oudh, and remained till the end of April; but when the commander-in-chief marched on Jalálabad he fled back again into Oudh. On the fall of Lucknow, Firoz Sháh retired to Bareilly, and took Morádabad on April the 22d, but was compelled to give it up again at once. The Nawáb of Najíbabad, leader of the Bijnor rebels, joined him in the city, so that the principal insurgents were congregated together in Bareilly when the English army arrived on the 5th of May. The city was taken on the 7th, and all the chiefs fled with Khán Bahádur into Oudh.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the number of inhabitants in Bareilly District at 1,316,830; in 1865 they had increased to 1,387,494, and in 1872 to 1,507,139. These figures show a total gain for the 19 years of 190,309 souls, or 14·4 per cent. The enumeration of 1872 was taken over an area of 2982 square miles, and it disclosed a population of 1,507,139 souls, distributed among 3548 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 296,441 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 505; villages per square mile, 1·2; houses per square mile, 99; persons

per village, 425; persons per house, 5. According to sex (exclusive of non-Asiatics), males, 806,913; females, 699,888; proportion of males, 53·5 per cent. According to age (with the same omission), there were under 12 years—males, 288,395; females, 250,914; total, 539,309, or 35·7 per cent. of the Asiatic population: above 12 years—males, 518,518; females, 448,974; total, 967,492, or 64·3 per cent. of the Asiatic population. Hindus numbered 1,197,583 souls, or 79·5 per cent.; and Musalmáns, 306,682 souls, or 20·5 per cent.; Christians, 536. The agricultural population amounted to 951,514 persons, or 63·1 per cent. The principal castes are returned as follows:—Bráhmans, 76,442; Rájputs, 44,669; Banias, 30,726; Ahírs, 47,238; Chamárs, 132,798; Káyasths, 22,610; and Kurmís, 166,280. Among the Musalmáns, Shaikhs numbered 243,757; Sayyids, 8616; Mughals, 4159; and Patháns, 51,680. Between 1830 and 1846 a slight decrease took place in the population, caused apparently by the famine of 1838-39; but great immigrations into the District occurred during the scarcity of 1860-61 and 1869-70. The best cultivators in Bareilly are the Kurmís, Lodhs, Murais, Chamárs, and Játs. The District contains only 4 towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls—namely, Bareilly, 102,982; Pilibhít, 29,840; Aonla, 11,153; and Bísalpur, 9250. A few ruined forts may be found scattered over the face of the country, but none of any military strength. The houses in villages have roofs of mud; in larger towns they are generally tiled, being often built of two storeys around an open courtyard; in the north, along the Tarái, some of the houses are supported on pillars, as the water in that tract approaches very near the surface of the ground. Relics of early Aryan buildings are found near Rámnagar, identified by General Cunningham with Ahichhatra, the capital of the great Panchala Des, a kingdom which stretched from the Himalayas to the Chambal. Similar ruins are found at Galoria, Devala, Lilaur, and elsewhere in the District.

Agriculture.—The soil of Bareilly is divided into upland and lowland, the latter consisting chiefly of the alluvial basins watered by the rivers Kanhaut, Deoha, Baigul, and Rámganga. Some of these low-lying tracts are covered twice a year by rich crops of wheat and sugar-cane; others, more sandy and less fertile, produce only a single crop of linseed or melons. The higher levels of the alluvial region are usually the most productive, as the inundations deposit their fine silt and vegetable mould at a distance from the central channels, while nearer the main stream sand and shingle render cultivation comparatively fruitless. The harvests are those common to the rest of Upper India. The *kharíf* or autumn crops are sown after the first rain in June, and gathered in October or November; early rice may even be harvested at the end of August, but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. The other autumn staples are *joár*, *bájra*, *moth*, and inferior food grains. The

spring crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April; they consist of wheat, barley, oats, and pulses. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops; and land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. Owing to the abundant rainfall, and the regularity of the Christmas showers, combined with the nearness of water to the surface, irrigation is not so necessary as in the Doáb. Moreover, as rents are often paid in kind by fixed proportions, it is asserted that the cultivators will not take the trouble to irrigate, when they know that they must share the resulting profit with their landlord. Out of 885,998 acres of cultivated land in the District in 1872, 65,614 were cultivated by the owners; 609,840 acres were held by tenants with rights of occupancy; and 191,065 acres by tenants-at-will. Money rents are usual in all the southern *parganás,* ranging from 5s. $5\frac{7}{8}$d. to 11s. $3\frac{3}{8}$d. per acre, according to situation; but towards the north, rents are paid in kind. The following rates of wages prevailed in 1877:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to $3\frac{3}{4}$d. per diem; agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women receive about one-fifth less than men, while children earn from one-third to one-half the wages of adults. Prices have steadily increased since the beginning of the century. In 1876, the ordinary food grains sold as follows:—Wheat, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; rice, 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s. per cwt.; *joár,* 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájra,* 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities. — Nothing is known of the scarcities which occurred in Rohilkhand during the last century, though the Muhammadan historians occasionally mention that after long-continued struggles between the Katheriyas and the Musalmáns, or protracted wars of the Afgháns against the Imperial troops, much land had fallen out of cultivation, and little grain was left in the country. The great famine of 1783 found Bareilly under the rule of the Wazírs of Oudh, who did nothing to mitigate its severity, but the distress never seriously effected Rohilkhand. In the famine year of 1803, Bareilly had but recently passed under the British Government. Very little rain fell during the autumn, and all the crops failed; disturbances arose, and the landlords, unable to pay their share of the revenue, absconded in numbers. The distress reached its height in April, when the people fed their starving cattle on the dried-up stalks of the spring crops. In 1837-38, the year of the terrible famine in the Doáb, Rohilkhand suffered somewhat for lack of rain; but opportune showers in February 1838 saved a large proportion of the *rabí* harvest. The scarcity of 1860-61 was severely felt throughout Rohilkhand, and this District did not escape unhurt. The road from Bareilly to Budaun was constructed as a relief work. Crowds of starving immigrants from the

westward poured into the District, aggravating the local distress, which would not otherwise have reached a conspicuous height. Bareilly was only slightly affected by the dearth of 1868-69. As a whole, owing to the abundant natural water supply of the sub-Himalayan tract, the extremity of famine need not be apprehended so seriously for this District as for many others in its neighbourhood.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The leading marts in the District are those of Bareilly and Pilibhít; but as many as 146 village *bázárs* are scattered through the country *parganás.* They are usually held twice a week, and serve to carry off the cotton and grain of the surrounding country, which is bought up by Banjáras for the markets of Bareilly, Pilibhít, Rámpur, and Chandausi. The villagers obtain their supplies of cloth, metal pots, and pedlar's wares at the same time. Landlords levy a small tax from each shopkeeper, pedlar, or grain seller at these *bázárs.* Bareilly has no manufactures of more than local importance, and very little external trade. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway passes through the south-western portion of the District, with stations at Fatehganj, Farídpur, Bareilly, Basháratganj, and Aonla. Good bridged and metalled roads connect Bareilly with Fatehgarh, Moradabad, Budaun, and Pilibhít. A metalled road also runs to the foot of the hills for Naini Tal. The northern part of the District is badly supplied with communications, owing to the scarcity of road metal, and the number of Himalayan torrents which cut their way through the soft soil.

Administration.—On the cession of Rohilkhand to the British in 1801, the Province was divided into two Districts—Bareilly and Moradabad. In 1813, Sháhjahánpur was made a distinct District; and in 1821 Budaun was similarly separated. In 1817, Bijnor was divided from Moradabad, and in 1858 the Tarái from Bareilly. In this way the six Districts now constituting the Rohilkhand Division were formed. In 1861, the Nawáb of Rámpur received a grant of 133 villages as a reward for his services during the Mutiny. The District, as at present constituted, is administered by a magistrate-collector, 2 joint magistrates, 2 assistant magistrates, and 1 deputy, besides the ordinary medical, fiscal, and constabulary establishments. Total District revenue, 1875-76, £204,814, equal to an average of 2s. 6d. per head on a population of 1,567,073. In 1875, the regular police force amounted to 1388 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £14,802. These figures show one policeman to every 1·70 square miles of area and every 1085 of the population; the cost of maintenance was at the rate of £4, 18s. per square mile, or 2¼d. per head of the population. Bareilly contains two places of confinement, the Central and the District jails. The former had in 1875 a daily average of 1628 prisoners, of whom 1592 were males, and 36 females; the average cost per head

amounted to £4, 1s., and the average earnings of each inmate to 8s. Criminals from all Districts in the Rohilkhand Division undergo confinement in this prison. The District jail contained in the same year a daily average of 620 prisoners, of whom 598 were males and 22 females; the average cost per head amounted to £3, 7s. 7½d., and the average earnings of each inmate to 2s. There are 20 post offices in the District, and the telegraph is in operation along the line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. In 1875 the educational machinery consisted of 572 schools, with an aggregate roll of 12,200 pupils, giving an average area of 5·21 square miles for each school, and a percentage of ·80 scholars on the whole population. Female education is carried on by 18 schools, 3 of which are of a high class. For fiscal and administrative purposes, Bareilly is divided into 8 *tahsíls* and 19 *parganás*. The District contains 3 municipalities, at Bareilly, Pilibhít, and Bísalpur. Their total income amounted in 1875-76 to £14,004, of which £8092 was due to taxes; while their joint expenditure reached the sum of £11,829. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 2¾d. per head of the population (130,585) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District is largely influenced by its proximity to the hills, Bareilly city and all the northern *parganás* lying within the limits of the heavier storms. The rainy season begins a little earlier, and ends a little later, than elsewhere to the south, and the cold weather lasts longer. The atmosphere is damp, the heat moderate, and the hot winds not excessive. The mean temperature in 1871 was 76°. The average annual rainfall for the 11 years ending 1870 amounted to 41·8 inches; the maximum during this period was 62·8 inches, in 1867, and the minimum 19·7 inches, in 1860. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1875 was 32,540, or 21·59 per thousand of the population; the average death-rate for the previous 6 years was returned as 20·94 per thousand. The District contains 7 dispensaries—3 in the city of Bareilly, and 1 each at Aonla, Bísalpur, Behari, and Pilibhít. In 1875 they afforded relief to a total of 66,437 patients.

Bareilly (*Bareli*).—City in Bareilly District, North-Western Provinces, and administrative headquarters of the District and also of the Rohilkhand Division. Lat. 28° 22′ 9″ N., long. 79° 26′ 38″ E.; area, 1280 acres; pop. (1872), 102,982 souls, comprising 59,036 Hindus, 43,463 Muhammadans, and 483 Christians or others. Bareilly is the most populous city in Rohilkhand, and fifth in the North-Western Provinces. It stands at an elevation of 550 feet above sea-level, on the Rámganga river, 96 miles above its confluence with the Ganges; distant from Calcutta 788 miles north-west, and from Delhi 152 miles east. Good metalled roads connect the city with all the neighbouring centres of trade

and population; and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway affords access from Lucknow and Bengal on the east, and from the Doáb on the west. The city, civil station, and cantonments lie on an open plain, without walls or fortifications, intersected by a few ravines and patches of broken ground. The cantonments contain lines for a battery of artillery and regiments of European and native infantry, besides native cavalry.

Bareilly was founded, according to tradition, about the year 1537, by Bas Deo and Barel Deo, from the latter of whom it derives its name. The Katheriyas of Rohilkhand (*see* BAREILLY DISTRICT) had long been carrying on a desultory warfare with the Musalmán governors of Sambhal and Aonla; and the Mughal Imperialists found it necessary to establish a strong outpost to the east of their previous frontier. Troops were thus posted at Bareilly; and round their encampment a city soon sprang up, whose irregular outline and mean architecture still betrays its hasty and temporary origin. The town long remained a mere military station, the last stronghold of the Mughals on their extreme north-eastern frontier. In 1657, Rájá Makrand Rái, the Hindu governor, founded the new city of Bareilly, cut down the forest to the west of the old town, and expelled all the Katheriyas from its precincts. From 1660 to 1707, the regular succession of Imperial governors at Bareilly continued without a break; but in the last-named year, on the death of the Emperor Aurangzeb, the Hindus threw off the Musalmán yoke, and began a series of internecine quarrels with their own co-religionists. Their dissensions gave an opportunity for the rise of Alí Muhammad Khán, chief of the Rohillá Patháns, whose history has been fully related in the article on BAREILLY DISTRICT. For half a century Bareilly remained the capital of the Rohillá race, until the conquest of their country by the British forces on behalf of the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh. From the Wazírs it passed to the British in 1801, and became at once the headquarters of a Division and District. Disturbances arose in 1816, 1837, and 1842, but our rule was never seriously threatened until the Mutiny of 1857. During that great struggle, Bareilly was the centre of disaffection for the whole of Rohilkhand. The troops rebelled on the 31st of May, and Khán Bahádur Khán, a descendant of the Rohillá chieftains, was proclaimed governor. Most of the Europeans escaped to Naini Tal. After the fall of Lucknow, the Nawáb of Fatehgarh, the Náná Sáhib, Firoz Sháh, and other leading rebels, took refuge in Bareilly. On the 5th of May 1858, the English army arrived before the town, and two days later the rebels fled into Oudh, and the English occupied Bareilly.

The city has little architectural pretension, the chief buildings being of modern date. The ruins of the ancient fortress, founded by Barel Deo, may still be seen in the old town. A modern fort of

considerable strength overlooks the artillery barracks in the cantonments, and supplies a place of refuge and defence for the station. A third and much older fortification owes its origin to Rájá Makrand Rái. The chief mosques are the Mirzá Masjíd, built by Mirzá Ain-ul-Mulk about the year 1600, and the Jamá Masjíd, erected by the Hindu Makrand Rái, in 1657. The Nawáb of Rámpur has a palace near the city, which he occupies on his visits to Bareilly, and lends at other times to Europeans of high official position. The other buildings include a church, two jails, lunatic asylum, District offices, and railway station. Most of the private houses are built of mud, only 6800 out of 22,800 being of masonry. Some of the new *bázárs*, particularly Inglisganj, are clean and well built. Cotton, grain, and sugar form the chief commercial staples; but Bareilly does not rank in the first class of mercantile importance. The manufactures of furniture and upholstery are better and cheaper than elsewhere in Northern India. Bareilly has a Government college, with a principal and staff of professors, besides high-class schools. The local affairs of the city are managed by a municipal committee of 24 members, of whom 8 are official and 16 elective. Income in 1875-76, £8683; from taxes, £7543, or 1s. 8½d. per head of population (91,410) within municipal limits.

Bárel.—Hill range in the Nágá Hills District, Assam Province. Lat. 25° to 25° 32′ N., long. 93° 9′ to 93° 46′ E.

Barelá. — Forest in Mandla District, Central Provinces, lying between 22° 58′ 45″ and 23° 2′ N. lat., and between 80° 12′ 30″ and 80° 16′ 30″ E. long.; area about 10 square miles. Broken up by numerous ravines, but full of young teak.

Barelá.—Ancient town in Jubbulpore (Jabalpur) District, Central Provinces, 10 miles south-east of Jubbulpore. Lat. 23° 6′ N., long. 80° 5′ 30″ E.; pop. (1866), 2233. Said to have been founded 1100 years ago by a Gond Rájá. Until 1857, noted for manufacture of gun-barrels. The present Thákurs of Barelá obtained 14 villages in *táluk* Pendwár, for good service, from Rájá Seoráj Sáh of Garhá Mandla.

Bareli. — District and town, North-Western Provinces. — *See* BAREILLY.

Barendá (or *Broang*).—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the southernmost range of the Himalayas. Lat. 31° 23′ N., long. 78° 12′ E. Reached by proceeding up the Pabar river nearly to its source. Elevation above sea-level, 15,095 feet.

Bareng.—Valley in Kashmir State. Lat. 33° 20′ to 33° 30′ N., long. 75° 10′ to 75° 26′ E. Remarkable for caverns and subterraneous water-courses and fountains, one of which 'is supposed to be the efflux of the engulphed water of the Bareng river.' The route by the Mirbal Pass runs up the valley.

Bareng River.—Drains valley of same name, being formed by junction of the southern waters from the Wardwan Pass with the north-western outflow from the Snowy Panjab; partly disappears in a subterraneous opening. Length about 40 miles.

Baretha.—Town in Fyzabad District, Oudh, on the banks of the Gogra (Ghágra) river, on the road from Fyzabad to Ajodhya. Said to have been founded by Ráma's washerman, Baretha. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 2500, of whom three-fifths are Vishnuvites; Muhammadans, 50. Many Vishnuvite temples.

Bargá.—Hill pass in the north of Bashahr State, Punjab, leading across the Himalayas. Lat. 31° 16′ N., long. 78° 19′ E. It is the lowest of three passes which occur at this point within the space of little more than a mile, and has probably not a greater elevation than 15,000 feet above the sea.

Bárgarh.—*Tahsíl* in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; pop. (1872), 298,458; area, 2723 square miles, of which 1101 are cultivated and 446 returned as cultivable; land revenue, £4601; total revenue, £4742. Chief town, Bárgarh; lat. 21° 21′ 15″ N., long. 83° 43′ 15″ E.

Bárh.—Subdivision of Patná District, Bengal, lying between 25° 10′ and 25° 34′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 13′ and 86° 6′ 15″ E. long.; area, 557 square miles, with 706 villages, and 58,903 houses; pop. (1872), 324,786, comprising 296,871 Hindus (or 91·4 per cent. of the population), 27,786 Muhammadans, and 129 Christians and others; average density of the population, 583 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·26; houses per square mile, 106; persons per village, 460—per house, 5·5. The Subdivision comprises the four *thánás* (police circles) of Fatwá, Bakhtiárpur, Bárh, and Mukáma. In 1870-71 it contained one magisterial court, a general police force of 231 men, and a village watch of 784 men. The total separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year was returned at £822. The greater part of the cultivated area is under food grains, other staples being grown only to a small extent.

Bárh.—Municipality in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 29′ 10″ N., long. 85° 45′ 12″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,050, comprising 8130 Hindus, 2915 Muhammadans, and 5 Christians. Situated on the Ganges; and also a station on the East Indian Railway, 299 miles from Calcutta. Bárh carries on a considerable trade in country produce. Municipal income in 1871, £505; incidence of municipal taxation, 11d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Bárhá.—Large agricultural village in Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Formerly held by the Pindári chief Chitu, who built a fort here. Since its cession to the British, the cultivated area of the village has more than doubled, and it has developed manufactures of *tasar* silk, wool, and cloth. Police outpost and village school.

Barhaj.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 16′ 40″ N., long. 83° 46′ 5″ E. Had a population of less than 5000 souls at the Census of 1872, but possesses considerable importance as the chief trading mart of the District. Lies on the river Rápti, between Gorakhpur and Ghatni Ghát. Fair in October attended by about 1500 persons. Large export of grain *viâ* the Gogra (Ghágra) to the Ganges ports. Outlet for trade in forest produce from the northern portion of the District, collected by the Paráuna and Barhaj road.

Barhalganj.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 17′ N., long. 83° 33′ 15″ E. Lies on north bank of the river Gogra (Ghágra). Large exports of grain to the Ganges ports. Great fair, known as Rámlila, held in October, attracts some 2000 persons. Government charitable dispensary. Pop. (1872), under 5000 souls.

Barhampur.—*See* BERHAMPORE.

Barhí (*Burhee*).—Village on the Grand Trunk Road in Hazáribágh District, Bengal, with post office and dispensary.

Barhiyá.—Town in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 17′ 30″ N., long. 86° 3′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872), 10,405, comprising 9757 Hindus and 648 Muhammadans; number of males, 5218; females, 5187; number of houses, 1875.

Bári.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Sitapur District, Oudh, lying between 27° 6′ and 27° 30′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 48′ 30″ and 81° 26′ 15″ E. long.; bounded on the north by Sitapur and Biswán *tahsíls*, on the east by Biswán, on the south by Bara Banki *tahsíl*, and on the west by Misrikh and Sandíla *tahsíls*. Area, 498 square miles, of which 336 are cultivated: pop. (1869), Hindus, 210,267; Muhammadans, 28,261; total, 238,528, viz. 126,146 males and 112,382 females: number of villages or towns, 548; average density of population, 479 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the five *parganás* of Bári, Manwán, Mahmudabad, Sadrpur, and Kundri (South).

Bári.—*Parganá* in Bári *tahsíl*, Sitapur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Pírnagar, on the east by Mahmudabad, on the south by Manwán *parganás*, and on the west by Sitapur District (the Saráyan river marking the boundary line). The early inhabitants are said to have been Kachheras and Ahírs, who held the country till the fourteenth century, when they were dispossessed by Pratáp Sinh, a convert to Islám, to whom a *farmán* was granted by the Emperor Tughlak. Pratáp Sinh had three sons prior to his conversion, and one afterwards by his Muhammadan wife. The descendants of the former are still in possession of some of their ancestor's villages; but the great bulk of his estate went to his Musalmán son, whose descendants became the hereditary *chaudharis* of the *parganá*, and the present representative of the family is still recognised by that

title. A considerable portion of the *parganá* is now held by Bais Kshattriyas, who settled here about 250 years ago. The soil is fertile, and facilities exist for irrigation. Area, 125 square miles, of which 80 are cultivated. The incidence of the Government land revenue is at the rate of 3s. 9⅝d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 11¾d. per acre of cultivable area, and 2s. 4¼d. of total area. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 45,689; Muhammadans, 4648; total, 50,337, viz. 26,705 males and 23,632 females. Number of villages, 129; average density of population, 402 per square mile.

Bári.—Chief town of the *tahsíl* of the same name in Sitapur District, Oudh; 23 miles south of Sitapur town, and 29 miles north of Lucknow. Said to have been founded by Mubarak, son of the Emperor Humáyun, who, having come to hunt in the Oudh jungles, built a shooting-box and country house (*bári*) here, round which a town sprang up. Pop. (1869), 3042, residing in 1860 mud houses. Only of importance as the headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Besides the court, the other Government buildings are the post office, police station, registration office, and school. No trade or manufactures.

Bári.—Village in Garhwál State, Punjab, on left bank of the Jumna (Jamuná). Manufacture of woollen cloth. Lat. 30° 55′ N., long. 78° 26′ E.

Bári.—Town in Dholpur State, Rájputáná; chief place of a small District of the same name, situated among the hills in the south-west of the territory. Lat. 26° 38′ N., long. 77° 42′ E.; distance from Dholpur, 18 miles west—from Agra, 44 miles south-west.

Bária.—Tributary State in Rewá Kánta, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 21′ and 22° 58′ N. lat., and between 73° 41′ and 74° 18′ E. long.; bounded east and west by the British District of the Panch Maháls, north by the States of Lunáwára and Sunth, and south by the State of Chotá Udepur. Estimated area, 813 square miles; pop. (1872), 52,421; gross revenue, £17,500. The country is hilly in the south and east, but flat in the west. Much of it is covered with forest. The climate is damp and unhealthy, fever being the prevailing disease. The principal products are cereals and timber. The chiefs of Bária are Chauhán Rájputs, who are said to have been driven south by the advance of the Musalmáns about the year 1244, and to have taken possession of the city and fort of Chámpáner. Here they ruled till defeated by Muhammad Begára in 1484, and forced to retire to the wilder parts of their dominions. Of two branches of the family, one founded the house of Chotá Udepur, and the other the house of Bária. The connection of this State with the British dates from 1803, when, in consequence of the help given by the chief to the British army in their operations against Sindhiá, the Government subsidized a detachment of Bária Bhíls at a monthly cost

of £180. The title of the head of the State is Mahárávwal of Devgarh Bária. The present chief, Mánsinhjí by name, was born in 1856, and succeeded to the *gadi* when eighteen years old. He was educated at the Rájkumár college in Káthiáwár, and travelled through a considerable part of India previous to undertaking the duties of personal administration. The State pays a tribute of £1200 to the British Government, and maintains a military force of 247 men. There is no *sanad* authorizing adoption; the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The ruler is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. For the nine years ending 1876, Bária was under the direct control of a British officer. Of the public works constructed under British management, the chief are the portion (21 miles in length) of the high road between Malwa and Guzerat lying within the limits of the Bária State, and a branch 7 miles long connecting the town of Bária with the main road. A dispensary is supported by the State at a yearly cost of £250, and there are 16 schools with 579 pupils.

Bária.—Chief town of the State of the same name, in Guzerat; in political connection with the Bombay Presidency; 50 miles north-east of Baroda. Lat. 22° 44′ N., long. 73° 56′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 2457.

Bári Doáb.—A tract of country in the Punjab, forming the irregular wedge of land between the Ravi (with the Trimáb) on the north-west and the Beas (with the Sutlej) on the south-east. It lies between 29° 18′ and 32° 14′ N. lat., and between 71° 4′ and 75° 25′ E. long.; comprising the Districts of GURDASPUR and AMRITSAR, with parts of LAHORE, MONTGOMERY, and MOOLTAN, each of which see separately. Length, 370 miles; average breadth, 45 miles. Traversed by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and watered in its north-eastern portion by the Bári Doáb Canal. The upper tract, irrigated by the canal, is fertile and populous; but towards the south the country becomes barren and desert, except where a narrow fringe of cultivation extends along the sides of the great boundary rivers. Commercially and agriculturally, this region is the most important of all the Doábs which make up the Punjab Proper, containing, as it does, the great cities of Lahore, Mooltan, and Amritsar, together with the watered and cultivated plains of the north-eastern slope.

Bári Doáb Canal.—An important irrigation work in Gurdáspur, Amritsar, and Lahore Districts, Punjab, drawn from the river Ravi; passing through the upper portion of the tract from which it takes its name, and watering, in 1872-73, a total area of 228,796 acres. Lies between 31° 9′ and 32° 22′ N. lat., and between 73° 43′ and 75° 39′ E. long. The present undertaking originated in a project for the improvement of an older work, the Hasli Canal, constructed about the year

1633 by Alí Mardán Khán, the famous engineer of the Emperor Sháh Jahán. After the occupation of Lahore, in 1846, Colonel Napier (now Lord Napier of Magdala) turned his attention at once to this project, and set on foot the necessary surveys. The progress of the work was interrupted by the outbreak of the Mooltan war, but continued after the annexation. The alignment of the Hasli Canal proved on examination to be so defective, that the officers in charge decided upon the adoption of an entirely independent line for the new canal, the original channel being only utilized as a distributary in the lower portion of its course. The main difficulty of the modern scheme was found in the slope of the country through which its upper portion must unavoidably pass, the fall being as much as 200 feet in the first 13 miles. At the same time, it proved impossible to take the supply from any point lower down the river, as the floods on the Ravi, when in full stream, rise too fiercely to permit the construction of a permanent dam across the united channel. It became necessary, therefore, to seek a branch which would yield a sufficient quantity of water in the rains, and into which the whole body might be diverted during the dry season. The only branch which answered these requirements was that already utilized for the Hasli Canal. The head-works were accordingly constructed opposite the village of Mádhupur, about 7 miles north-west of Pathánkot, and a short distance above those belonging to Alí Mardán's undertaking. The minimum discharge of the Ravi being 2752 cubic feet per second, the regulator provides for the admission of 3000 cubic feet. The channel strikes off across the plain at once, and runs almost due south till it reaches a point parallel with Dínanagar, where it becomes available for purposes of irrigation. The Bári Doáb is marked off into several minor divisions by natural lines of drainage, and great branches of the canal, 4 in number, run along the crest of each principal dividing ridge between their basins. The Kasúr branch diverges from the main line in the thirty-first mile of its course, and flows on nearly due south; while the main line turns south-westward, and follows the watershed of the Kasúr *nálá*. Seven miles farther, the Kasúr branch subdivides; one of its channels, still retaining the same name, following the line of upland between the Patti and Kasúr *nálás*, while the other, known as the Sobráon branch, continues southwards between the Patti *nálá* and the Beas (Biás). Both these distributaries eventually end in the old bed of the last-named river. The main line runs on undivided till it reaches its fifty-fourth mile; but, a little north-west of Majítha, it gives off the Lahore branch. This channel crosses the head of the Udiára *nálá*, follows the line of highest ground between the Udiára and the Ravi, passing between Lahore and Meean Meer (Mián Mír), and ends in the Ravi a few miles below Lahore. The main branch runs on, still south-westward, down the very centre of the Doáb uplands, which narrow just

below Lahore into a mere strip of country between the Ravi and the ancient bed of the Beas. At last, near Changa Manga, at the southern extremity of Lahore District, the main stream debouches into the Ravi. The Bári Doáb Canal was completed and ready for work by the end of the year 1859-60, and irrigation operations commenced in the following season. The head-works, however, were then of a temporary nature, the permanent weir and other regulating machinery not being fully completed till 1873. The present aggregate length of the canal amounts to 212 miles, with 692 miles of minor distributaries (*rájbahás*). The total capital expenditure up to the end of 1875-76 reached the sum of £1,251,443; the gross income in that year was returned at £77,188, or, including increase of land revenue due to irrigation, £93,841; the working expenses of the year were £48,093. The net or direct profit accordingly amounted to £29,094, or 2·3 per cent. on the capital outlay; while the gross profit, inclusive of increased land revenue, was £45,747, or 3·6 per cent. on the capital outlay. The regular income is derived from water rates, which rule as follows per acre: — For overflow, sugar-cane, 12s.; rice and gardens, 9s. 6d.; sundry crops, from 3s. to 5s.; single watering on fallow, 1s. 6d; for lift, one-half the above rates. The total area irrigated by the canal has risen from 89,756 acres in 1860-61, to 279,210 acres in 1870-71. The canal waters portions of Gurdáspur, Amritsar, and Lahore Districts, and has been largely instrumental in the substitution of cotton, sugar-cane, and superior cereals for the common food-stuffs which were formerly almost the only crops grown on this thirsty tract. It has also induced a steady improvement in methods of agriculture, the uncertainty of the water supply in previous years having been the main drawback to the industrious peasantry; while the danger of famine in the three irrigated Districts may now be considered as far less imminent than formerly.

Barisál. — The headquarters Subdivision of Bákarganj District, Bengal, lying between 22° 28′ and 22° 40′ N. lat., and between 90° 13′ 45″ and 90° 37′ 45″ E. long.; area, 964 square miles; number of villages and towns, 1232; houses, 89,230; pop. (1872), 711,180, comprising 460,615 Muhammadans (or 64·8 per cent. of the population), 249,085 Hindus, 1383 Christians, 45 Buddhists, and 52 'others'; number of males, 360,800, or 50·7 per cent. of population—females, 350,380; average density of population, 738 per square mile; houses per square mile, 93; persons per house, 8. The Subdivision was established in 1801; it comprises the 5 *thánás* (police circles) of Barisál, Jhálakátí, Nalchití, Bákarganj, and Mehndíganj. In 1870-71, there were 8 magisterial and revenue courts, and the total police force, including 2622 village watchmen, numbered 3007. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration, including courts and police, in the same year was returned at £12,435.

Barisál.—Municipality and civil station of Bákarganj District, Bengal, on the west bank of the Barisál river. Lat. 22° 41′ 40″ N., long. 90° 24′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 7684, comprising 4694 Hindus, 2821 Muhammadans, and 169 Christians and others; number of males, 5799—females, 1885. Municipal revenue in 1871-72, £1019; incidence of municipal taxation, 2s. 7¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. Out of a total male population of 5799 souls, 2482 (or 43 per cent.) have received or are receiving education. The headquarters of the District, formerly at Bákarganj, were transferred to Barisál in 1801.

Barkal Hills.—Range in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal; principal peak, Barkal Tang (lat. 22° 45′ N., long. 92° 22′ E.), 1879 feet in height. The hills are covered with dense jungle; the ascents are very steep, and can only be made along known zig-zag paths. Wild elephants, however, reach the summits; and if proper paths were cut through the jungle, laden animals could doubtless do the same.

Barkal Rapids.—A succession of low falls and long rocky slopes, about a mile in length, forming part of the course of the Karnaphulí river, in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. Lat. 23° 43′ N., long. 92° 26′ E. The falls are 20 miles above Kásálang, a place distant about 100 miles from the mouth of the Karnaphulí. They practically stop navigation.

Barkalur (*Bracalor* of Faria-y-Souza; *Colloor* of the Trigonometrical Survey Map; *Barsalor* of Horsburgh).—A ruined town in North Kanara District, Bombay. Lat. 13° 50′ N., long. 74° 53′ E. 'Once,' according to Faria-y-Souza (*Annals* 1581-1584), 'one of the most noted places of trade in India, in the form of a commonwealth, but much decayed since the Portuguese built a fort there.' Distant (direct) from Mangalore, 68 miles north; from Bombay, 380 miles south-east; from Bangalore, 195 miles north-west; from Madras, 370 miles west.

Barkhera (*Bará*, or *Mota*).—Petty State in the Bheel (Bhíl) Agency, Central India. The chief, or Bhúmia, has relations both with Dhar and with Sindhia. He holds from Dhar 3 villages in Dharmpuri, subject to a payment of £86, 12s.; from Sindhia he holds certain villages in the Sagor *parganá*, on which he pays £165; and also 5 villages in Dektaun, on which he pays £140. The present Bhúmia is Barud Sinh.

Barkhera (*Chhotá*, or *Sorpur*).—Petty State in the Bheel (Bhíl) Agency, Central India. The Bhúmia, Bhawáni Sinh, pays to the Dhar State £15 on 4 villages; and is responsible for police duties in 15 villages jointly with the Bhúmia of Bará Barkhera. Like the latter, he furnishes reports of crimes to the Dhar State.

Barkop.—Group of hills, 8 miles north of Deogarh, Santál Parganás, Bengal. They are four in number, nearly in line with one another; the two central peaks being conical, while the outside ones slope down to the plain in long irregular ridges.

Barkúr.—Former Subdivision of Kanara, comprising a portion of the western declivity of the Gháts; very hilly, and traversed by numerous mountain streams. This tract, at a remote period of history, formed part of the Kadamba realm, overthrown, as tradition relates, in the 2d century A.D. It became subsequently subject to Vijiyanagar, but after the defeat of that power at Talikot (1565), passed into the hands of the Bednur Rájá. In 1763, Haidar Ali absorbed Bednur, and after the death of his son, Tippú Sultán, the country was incorporated in the British dominions.

Barkúr.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 28′ 30″ N., long. 74° 47′ 50″ E.; houses, 168; pop. (1871) 851. The present town marks the site of a very ancient city, once the largest in Kanara, and even in the 16th century of considerable importance. As the capital of the Jain kings of Tulava, the seat of Bhutal Pandya's Government, and subsequently a stronghold of the Vijiyanagar Rájás, who obtained possession of it in 1335, the ruined city possesses much of interest for the antiquary. Traces of the great fort built by Hari Har Rájá about 1370 A.D. still exist, as also the tanks and part of the walls of Bhutal Pandya's palace. Ruins of Buddhist temples abound, and inscriptions testify that in the 14th century Baikúr was the seat of the viceregal government of the Rái of Vijiyanagar. Among the sculptures, one representing a procession of armed men, bearing a striking resemblance in equipments and general appearance to the Greek soldiery, and another of a centaur, deserve special mark. Tradition asserts that it was from here that the Alya Santana law of inheritance was promulgated. The present town possesses some trade in brass and copper utensils.—*See* HANGARKOTTA.

Bármúl Pass.—Mountain gorge in Daspallá State, Orissa, near Goáldeo Peak. Lat. 20° 30′ N., long. 84° 50′ E. The pass is overhung with crags and peaks of wild beauty, and the Mahánadí river sweeps through it, forming the northern boundary of the State. The hills on either side are magnificently wooded, and the gorge is at one part so narrow that the river rises 70 feet in time of flood.

Barnadi.—River in Assam, flowing south from the mountains of Bhután into the Brahmaputra. Lat. at point of junction 26° 13′ N., long. 91° 48′ E. For the most part it forms the boundary between Kámrúp District on the west and Darrang District on the east; but its channel is liable to constant changes, which have left many old beds. It is navigable by large country boats in the rainy season, and by canoes during the rest of the year.

Baroda (*Wadodrá*).—Non-tributary State, now in direct political relation with the Government of India; including all the territories of his Highness the Gáekwár in different parts of the Province of Guzerat, Bombay. These territories (lying between 21° 51′ and 22° 49′ N. lat.,

and between 72° 53′ and 73° 55′ E. long.) have, according to the Census of 1872, a total area of 4399 square miles, and a population of 2,000,225 souls, or 454 to the square mile. They are divided into four administrative Divisions, viz. (1) the northern, comprising the Districts of Patan, Karrí, Bijapur, Bísnagar, Dehgaon, etc.; (2) the central, comprising the Districts round Baroda itself; (3) the southern, or the Navsári Division; (4) the Káthiáwár Districts of Amreli and Okhámandal. Each of these Divisions is much intermixed with British territory, and also with the lands belonging to minor chiefs, tributary to the Gáekwár, but under the political supervision of the British Government.

Physical Aspects.—The northern Districts in Guzerat form a wide plain, drained by the rivers Nerbudda (Narbadá), Tápti, Mahi, and several smaller streams. The surface consists chiefly of *régar*, or black cotton soil, and a light-coloured soil locally known as *goraru*. The natural fertility of the black cotton soil is well known. The *goraru* soil is also fertile when manured and irrigated; in dry weather, where subject to much traffic as in roads, it forms deep, heavy, and almost impalpable sand, which again after rain becomes tolerably compact. The roads are generally lined by hedges of cactus, irregularly planted. Deserted towns, ruined temples, and tanks now partly filled with mud, bear testimony to the former prosperity of the country. Okhámandal, in the extreme north-west of the peninsula of Káthiáwár, surrounded on three sides by the sea or the Gulf of Cutch, partakes of the general appearance of the Province of Cutch (Kachchh), being everywhere sandy and covered with loose stones. The Amreli Mahál s resemble the rest of Káthiáwár. The country is open, the soil good, and well watered with perennial streams. The central Division, surrounding the city of Baroda, is perfectly flat and covered with trees, the soil fertile and highly cultivated, yielding crops of the most highly prized cotton. The fourth or southern Division, including the lands that intermix with the British District of Surat, is also fertile and well cultivated, especially in the neighbourhood of the town of Navsári.

The principal rivers flowing through the territory are the Saraswati, Sábarmati, Mahi, Nerbudda (Narbadá), Purna, Dhutarwád, Shetrunji, Meswá, Wátrak, Shetu, Dhádhar, and Ambika. The lesser streams are the Banás, Rupan, Luná, Játi, Vishwámitri, Suryá, Orá, Varná, Ambá, and Debi. Water is obtained chiefly from wells, but in almost all parts of the territory there are fine reservoirs. The rivers have worn their courses deep below the level of the rich alluvial deposit, and, except on occasions of flood, no longer serve to fertilize the soil.

Apart from the Rájpipla Hills, which fringe the southern limit of the central Division, there is no range of mountains in the whole territory.

Population.— The Census of 1872 gives a total population of 2,000,225 souls, or 454 to the square mile. Of these, 1,825,588, or 91·27 per cent., including 46,544 Sráwaks or Jains, are Hindus; 167,210, or 8·36 per cent., Musalmáns; 175 Christians; 7238 Parsís; and 14 'others.' The percentage of males in the total population is 52·88. Of the 1,825,588 Hindus, 263,234 are Sivaites, and 841,061 Vishnuvites, 665,956 are undescribed, 8793 are ascetics and religious mendicants, and 46,544 Sráwaks (Jains). Of the 167,210 Musalmáns, 156,398 are Sunis and 10,812 Shiás. Of the 7238 Parsís, 7170 are Shehanstáis and 68 Kadmis. The agricultural population of the State, as in other parts of Guzerat, is mainly composed of Bráhmans of the Bháthelá clan, Kanbis, Rájputs, and Kolis. There are also Borah cultivators in the north and south, and Bhíls in the wilder tracts towards the south. In the highly-cultivated parts the Kanbis predominate. The mercantile community is said to be in a prosperous condition, and many families, especially those who in former times acted as State bankers, are possessed of great wealth. In recent years a large number of Bráhmans, Marhattás, and other natives of the Deccan and Konkan have permanently settled in Baroda territory. In the northern and eastern Districts the chief cultivators are Kolis and Rájputs in poor circumstances. With these are interspersed Bháts, Chárans, and religious mendicants of different descriptions, some of whom, such as the Gosáins, who inhabit monasteries called *maths*, are often the wealthiest and most influential landowners in the country.

Excluding Bombay and Surat, the number of Parsís is nowhere greater than in the Baroda territory. With the exception of about 175 residing in Baroda city and at other places, the Parsí population is collected at Navasári, about 15 miles from Surat, where they are said to have settled with their sacred fire about 450 years ago. The two hill forts of Songarh and Sáler are worthy of notice. Songarh, 43 miles east of Surat and a few miles south of the Tápti, commands a path much favoured by the bands which from time to time invaded the plain of Guzerat from the higher lands of Khandesh, and was for many years the headquarters of the Gáekwár's power. Sáler is at the south-east corner of the Baroda territory. These two, which both lie in Navasári District, and also the fort of Mulher, are still garrisoned with militia. Rupgarh, a hill fort 10 miles south of Songarh, and Wájpur on the Tápti river, once a strong place, have no longer garrisons. Among other places of interest in the State may be mentioned—Vohorá Kathor, famous for the manufacture of the deep-red dye extracted from the roots of the *moringa* tree; Sojitrá, celebrated for its knives; Daboi, where turbans and *saris* are woven in large quantities; Pátan, well known for its knives, nut-crackers, and specially

for its pottery, which is remarkable for lightness and strength, as well as for the taste with which it is coloured.

History.—The present sovereign of Baroda is His Highness Mahárájá Sivají Ráo, a Marhattá by caste, born about 1863. The name by which the rulers of the State are generally known is Gáekwár; the family title is Sena Khas Khel Shamsher Bahádur. The Gáekwár of Baroda is entitled to a salute of 21 guns. The family first rose out of obscurity in 1720-21, when, at the battle of Bálapur, Damají Gáekwár so distinguished himself that Khandi Ráo Dhabarái, who held the rank of Senapati or commander-in-chief of the Marhattá army, strongly recommended him to Rájá Shahú of Satara, and procured his appointment as second in command, with the title of Shamsher Bahádur. Damají dying soon after, was succeeded in his office by his nephew Pilají Ráo Gáekwár, who entered into a fast friendship with Trimbak Ráo Dhabarái, the son and successor of the Senapati; and the two friends forthwith commenced their career of marauding in the fertile plains of Guzerat. But in 1729 the Peshwá Bájí Ráo obtained from Sirbuland Khán, the Mughal governor of Guzerat, a cession of *chauth* and other dues of that Province, and among other conditions of the grant, engaged to prevent Marhattá subjects from taking part with disaffected *zamíndárs*, or other disturbers of the peace. This clause was specially aimed at Pilají Gáekwár, who, as deputy of the Senapati, and himself in possession of the stronghold of Songhar, commanding the principal route from the Deccan into Guzerat, exercised a commanding influence over the Bhíls and Kolís of the country, and had for some years levied contributions in his annual incursions. Accordingly, Trimbak Ráo Dhabarái and Pilají formed a confederacy of the disaffected Marhattá chiefs to oppose the Peshwá, but in a battle fought near Baroda on the 1st of April 1731, the confederates were defeated and Trimbak Ráo Dhabarái was killed. His infant son, Jeswant Ráo, was, however, appointed to the office of Senapati, while Pilají Gáekwár was confirmed in his former rank of lieutenant or Moatálik, with the additional title of Sena Khas Khel. It was further agreed that Jeswant Ráo should have the entire management in Guzerat, paying half the contributions to the Peshwá, and accounting for all sums levied from countries not mentioned in the deed of cession given by Sirbuland Khán to the Peshwá. This deed, however, had been in the meantime disallowed by the Emperor of Delhi. Sirbuland Khán was removed from office, and superseded by Abhí Sinh, Rájá of Jodhpore. On this Pilají declared open war against the Imperial officers, defeated them in the field, and occupied many of the principal towns. Abhí Sinh, finding that the personal qualities of Pilají made him specially formidable, procured his assassination under the pretext of a conference, in 1732.

Pilají was succeeded by his son Damají, during whose long and active career of nearly forty years the whole of Guzerat was wrested from the Mughals. Jeswant Ráo, the Senapati, when he came of age, proved incompetent for his post, and the Dhabarái family now gave place to the Gáekwárs. Possession of Baroda was obtained by Maháji Gáekwár, brother of Pilají, in 1732, and the city has ever since been held by the Gáekwárs as the capital of their dominions. Damají Gáekwár supported Tara Bái in her effort to free her grandson, the Rájá of Satara, from the thraldom of the Peshwá Balají Báji Ráo; but he was treacherously seized by the Peshwá, and was not released till he consented to pay 15 *lákhs* of rupees on account of arrears of tribute in Guzerat, and also executed a bond to share equally all his possessions and future conquests. In the following year, the Peshwá obtained a partition of Damají Gáekwár's conquests in Káthiáwár, and the Gáekwár agreed to assist the Peshwá with troops when necessary. Forthwith the armies of Damají Gáekwár and of the Peshwá, under Raghuba, proceeded to the joint conquest of Guzerat. By 1755, the Mughal Government in Ahmedabad was entirely subverted. The revenue of Ahmedabad was divided between Damají and the Peshwá; but, with the exception of one gateway, the city was held by the troops of the latter. In the battle of Panipat, fought on the 7th of January 1761, Damají commanded his own contingent, and acquitted himself with credit. His horsemen supported the advance of the infantry of the Marhattá army, under the command of Ibráhim Khán Gardí, which defeated the opposite wing of the Afgháns; and Damají was one of the few chiefs of the highest rank who returned in safety to their homes from that fatal field. The remaining years of his life were spent in enlarging and consolidating his territories. He dispossessed Jawán Mard Khán of nearly all the Districts he had retained in northern Guzerat, leaving him only his original *jágír* of Radhanpur and its dependencies. He reduced the Rahtor princes of Edar to the status of tributaries, made repeated progresses into Káthiáwár, when he made some solid acquisitions besides exacting black-mail, and, in fine, established himself as a sovereign power of the first class. His connection with Raghuba, the Peshwá's general, was unfortunate. He supported him in his rebellion against Madhu Ráo, and furnished him with troops under his own son, Govind Ráo. But in this war he was defeated, and compelled to submit to the imposition of a tribute of Rs. 525,000, and annual service with 3000 horse during peace and 4000 during war. He also agreed to pay Rs. 254,000 for certain Districts which the Peshwá promised to restore to him, making his tribute in all Rs. 779,000.

The death of Damají, in 1768, was the signal for family dissensions, which eventually brought the State into its present connection with the

British Government. Damají had three lawful wives, and male issue by each. His first wife had one son, Govind Ráo; but the eldest son, Syají Ráo, as well as Fateh Sinh, were born of his second wife. Govind Ráo was at Poona at the time of his father's death, and on paying a large *nazar* to the Peshwá Madhu Ráo, and agreeing to the arrangements concluded with Damají three years before, he procured his recognition as successor to his father's office of Sena Khas Khel. But Fateh Sinh, a man of energy and talent, placed his brother Syají on the throne at Baroda, and himself assumed the regency. He then proceeded in person to Poona to obtain the reversal of the Peshwá's decision in favour of Govind Ráo. Madhu Ráo, whose object was to divide the family, and thereby reduce the Gáekwár's power, eventually admitted Syají's right, and thus the half-brothers Govind Ráo and Fateh Sinh were made implacable enemies. To strengthen his position, Fateh Sinh made overtures for an alliance with the British Government in 1772, but his proposal was rejected. The rupture, however, which subsequently took place between the Court of Poona and the British Government was the occasion of an offensive and defensive treaty with Fateh Sinh, concluded by General Goddard on the 20th January 1780. This treaty was virtually annulled on the conclusion of peace with the Poona Government in 1782. Fateh Sinh Gáekwár died on the 21st December 1789. Manají, the younger son by a third wife of Damají, assumed charge of the Government for his brother Syají, and was recognised by the Peshwá on payment of a large *nazar*. At his death, in 1793, he was succeeded by Govind Ráo, to whom the Peshwá leased his share of the Guzerat revenues on behalf of the Gáekwár. In September 1800, Govind Ráo died, and his eldest son, Anand Ráo, was acknowledged as his successor. He was of weak intellect, and the powers of the State were usurped by his illegitimate half-brother, Kanají Ráo. The Minister of Anand Ráo made overtures to the British Government to subsidize five battalions of Sepoys if Kanají were reduced, and Anand Ráo saved from the domination of his Arab soldiery, whose demands for payment of arrears had become most menacing, while their fidelity was more than doubtful. The requisite assistance was given, Kanají was removed to Madras, the Arabs curbed, and the money advanced or borrowed on British guarantee for payment of the troops, whose numbers were reduced. In 1815, in consequence of the murder of an envoy from Baroda, the connection was broken off between the Gáekwár and the Peshwá, the head of the Marhattá confederacy. The latter had to renounce all future rights against the Gáekwár, and to compromise past claims for a sum of 4 *lakhs* of rupees per annum, a payment from which the Gáekwár was released on the overthrow of the Peshwá. In 1817, a treaty was concluded for an increase of the subsidiary force, the cession to the British Govern-

ment (for the payment of the additional force) of all the rights the Gáekwár had acquired by the farm of the Peshwá's territories in Guzerat, the consolidation of the territories of the British Government and the Gáekwár by exchange of certain Districts, the co-operation of the Gáekwár's troops with those of the British Government in time of war, an engagement by the Gáekwár to maintain a contingent of 3000 horse at the disposal of the British Government, and the mutual surrender of criminals. Anand Ráo Gáekwár died in 1819, and was succeeded by his younger brother, Syají Ráo, who in 1820 entered into a further convention with the British, whereby he agreed to send no troops into Káthiáwár and Mahi Kánta, and to make no demands on his tributaries except through the medium of the British Government, who on their part engaged to procure payment of the tribute free of expense to the Gáekwár. In 1847, Syají Ráo died, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Ganpat Ráo, who, dying without male issue in 1856, was succeeded by his brother, Khandi Ráo. During the Mutiny of 1857-58 Khandi Ráo Gáekwár rendered faithful service to the British Government; and as a reward for his loyalty, the payment of 3 *lakhs* of rupees per annum was remitted, for which the Gáekwár's Government was liable for the maintenance of a body of cavalry known as the Guzerat Irregular Horse. He was also created G.C.S.I. in 1862.

Khandi Ráo died on the 28th November 1870, leaving no son, though his younger wife, Jamnabáí, was at the time of his death *enceinte*. The next heir to the throne was Khandi Ráo's younger brother, Malhar Ráo, who had been accused, in 1863, of being concerned in a conspiracy to compass the death of his brother, Khandi Ráo, by poison or other means, and was in consequence confined as a State prisoner at Padra, in Baroda territory. On the death of Khandi Ráo, Malhar Ráo was installed as his successor, on the understanding that if Jamnabáí were delivered of a son, the child should be recognised as Gáekwár. The posthumous child being a girl, Malhar Ráo retained his position. Malhar Ráo's rule, however, was such, that within three years after his installation the British Government was obliged to appoint a Commission to inquire into numerous charges of maladministration preferred against him through the Resident at Baroda. On consideration of the report submitted by the Commission, the Government of India decided on giving the Gáekwár a term of seventeen months for effecting certain reforms described in the report as specially called for. Before the expiration of this period, however, an attempt was made, in November 1874, to poison the Resident, Colonel Phayre. The inquiries instituted having warranted the conclusion that the attempt was instigated by Malhar Ráo, he was suspended from the functions of ruler on the 14th January 1875; and the charges against him were investigated by a High Commission, consisting of three

European and three native members. The Commission was equally divided in opinion as to the guilt of Malhar Ráo; and the Government of India having regard to Malhar Ráo's notorious misconduct, his gross misgovernment of the State, and his evident incapacity to carry into effect the necessary reforms, deposed him from the sovereignty of the Baroda State, on 22d April 1875. Syají Ráo, a descendant of Pratáp Ráo, son of Pilají Ráo, the founder of the family, and younger brother of Damají, whose line terminated with Malhar Ráo, having been selected as the most fit successor, Jamnabáí, the widow of Khandi Ráo Gáekwár, was permitted to adopt him, in consideration of Khandi Ráo's services during the Mutiny; and on the 27th May 1875, Syají Ráo was installed as Gáekwár.

The Military Force maintained by the Baroda State consists of a regular force of 5 batteries of artillery, with 400 artillerymen and 20 guns; a cavalry force of 120 officers and men, and 6 regiments of infantry,—aggregating 3126 of all ranks. These troops are all drilled and equipped on a similar system to that of the British army. Of the artillery, 2 batteries consist of 2 gold and 2 silver 3-pounder guns respectively, and 1 battery of 4 6-pounders is equipped as horse artillery; 2 batteries of 6 guns each are drawn by bullocks. Of the 6 regiments of infantry, 2 are local regiments, employed in the Káthiáwár Districts. Besides the regular army there is also a large irregular force, numbering about 13,055, viz. 5625 horse and 7430 foot, the maintenance of which is a great drain on the resources of the State. The cost of the regular force is about 8¼ *lakhs*, while that of the irregular is estimated at 31 *lakhs* a year.

Agriculture, etc.—Luxuriant crops are grown of grain, cotton, tobacco, opium, sugar-cane, and oil-seeds. The staple food of the people is *bájra*, but wheat and rice are also largely consumed. The northern Division of Baroda is famous for its breed of large white cattle. Those used for travelling-carts are of great size and strength, and able to travel considerable distances; for short journeys they are able to keep up a pace of about 6 miles an hour. The breed of horses raised in the Káthiáwár Districts is celebrated throughout India.

Land Tenures.—With regard to lands which pay revenue, it may be broadly laid down that they are at the absolute disposal of the Government, the cultivators holding them at its pleasure, and not being in any degree proprietors, except when they have acquired rights either by direct grant or immemorial custom. Still, the cultivator is not usually interfered with as long as he pays his revenue.

The prevailing tenure is *rayatwári*, where the State collects the revenue without the intervention of a third party. The varieties of this tenure are three:—1st, When the collection is made in cash assessed on each prevalent measure of land, such as the *bighá;* 2d, When it is

made in kind according to a fixed share of the produce; 3d, When it is made in cash at a certain rate per plough. There are other varieties of assessment adopted over an insignificant area of land among primitive communities, such as assessments per pickaxe and per perch, on which the cultivator sits to watch his crop. The old system of farming out villages and entire districts has been abolished, except in some exceptional cases. A permanent assessment has been granted to a few villages.

In cases where the State levies its assessments in kind, its share is fixed beforehand for every class of crop, the monsoon crops yielding a much larger share than the cold-season crops, which, again, pay more than those of the hot season, depending as these last do on irrigation. Besides the share in kind, a small rate in cash is charged on the estimated area of each holding, which is often miscalculated, but always in favour of the cultivator. The State also levies small quantities of the produce as contributions towards the expenses of the village, etc. The produce is either estimated as it stands in the field, or is actually weighed in the village barnyard, and the State share is then collected into storehouses and sold by officials.

The plough assessment prevalent in the eastern Districts of the Navasári (southern) Division, and also in one Subdivision in the central Division inhabited by Bhíls and other primitive communities, is as follows:—A rate is fixed for one plough worked by two oxen, and increased if more than two pairs are employed, so that 3 oxen equal 1½ plough; there is no limit to the amount of land the plough may be passed over.

Besides the above, the other prevailing custom, the *narwá*, is a lump sum assessed on the village from time to time according to its capabilities. The settlement is made with the *narwádárs* or superior holders, who in most cases are the descendants of men who established or peopled the village. The founders originally divided the lands and the village site among themselves according to the exigency of the circumstances; afterwards they separately and gradually invited cultivators to work in their respective lands, and to live in their respective shares of the village. These are now in law tenants-at-will; but the State would probably not suffer an old-established tenant to be ousted as a mere tenant-at-will might be, though, as a rule, no interference is exercised, and the *narwádár* may realize what he pleases from his tenants. The fruit trees, grazing, etc., often yield a large additional profit, which is not considered in the gross amount assessed by Government. The *bhágdári* tenure is somewhat different, though the *bhágdárs* too are superior holders. But the lands of the village are measured and assessed, and the result is fixed as the revenue payable by the *bhágdárs*, who are generally allowed to realize from the culti-

vators more than the sum paid to Government, on the supposition that they have to let poor lands at less than the Government rates. Again, some villages are held by landlords of the higher class called *mehwásis*, each of whom pays for one or more villages a lump sum, settled by the State annually or from time to time, which does not as a rule interfere with the internal fiscal arrangements.

A cultivator is seldom ousted for failure to pay the assessment. His private property is liable to be sold, but if he has no saleable property, he is suffered to pay by instalments. There is no rule as to the liability of land to attachment and sale for private debt. Implements of agriture (including carts and oxen), also seed-grain, clothes and ornaments in ordinary use, and food sufficient for a reasonable time, belonging to a cultivator and his family, are exempted from the process of a civil court.

Means of Communication.—The Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway passes through the territory at two points,—it first enters the Navasári Subdivision south of Surat, where are two stations, Navasári and Billimorá; north of Broach the railway again passes through Baroda territory from Miyágám to the Mahi river, in which section are the stations of Miyágám, Itolá, Baroda, and Bajwa. There are only about 20 miles of made road. Common country tracks of the rudest description exist all over the State, but most of them are barely practicable for cart traffic during eight months of the year, and utterly impassable during the monsoon except for horses, pack-bullocks, and camels.

Administration, etc.—The total revenue of the State in 1875 was estimated at £1,026,482, composed of the following items:—(1) Land revenue, £748,414; (2) Town and transit duties, £97,859; (3) Taxes on caste and trade, £21,289; (4) *Abkári*, £40,035; (5) Justice, £11,089; (6) Tribute from Native States of Guzerat, £42,006; and (7) Miscellaneous, £46,321. Of the total estimated revenue only £850,711 was realized during the year, leaving a balance of £175,771. The greater portion of this balance, being on account of land revenue, was irrecoverable.

The revenue is paid in four instalments, viz. 1st November, 4 *ánnás* in the rupee; 2d January, 6 *ánnás* in the rupee; 3d February, 4 *ánnás* in the rupee; and 4th March, 2 *ánnás* in the rupee. In villages inhabited by Kolis and other needy classes, the revenue is collected in two equal payments.

General supervision in revenue matters is entrusted to an officer called the *sar subhá* or revenue commissioner, who receives a monthly salary of £150. Under him are four officers, styled *subhás*, answering to the Collectors of a British District, each of whom has charge of one of the four Divisions of the State, and receives a salary varying from £50 to £80 a month. Subordinate to the *subhás* are 10 *náibs*

or deputy *subhás*, corresponding to deputy or assistant collectors, each with the charge of a Subdivision, whose monthly pay varies from £30 to £45. The 10 Subdivisions are again apportioned into 31 minor divisions, styled *táluks* or *maháls*, managed by *vahiwátidárs* or *tahsíldárs*. On account of their size, 9 of the *táluks* are further subdivided into two portions, managed by sub-*tahsíldárs* or *mahálkaris*.

At Baroda itself there is an *adálat* or *varisht*, that is High Court, presided over by a chief-justice, with a salary of from £100 to £120 a month. His jurisdiction extends throughout the whole territory, both in original suits and as a court of final appeal and revision in civil and criminal matters. There are 4 divisional judges, one at the headquarters of each Division, with power to try original suits of upwards of £100 in value, and to hear civil and criminal appeals. There is also a fifth judge for the city of Baroda. There are 15 *munsífs*, with power to try civil suits up to £100. In 1875-76, the total number of suits was nearly 30,000, of which 7100 were disposed of. The total value under litigation was £484,848; the amount of court fees, £16,017.

In criminal matters the chief-justice has power to inflict the following sentences:—Fourteen years' imprisonment, fine to any amount, or both fine and imprisonment, and 30 stripes. Higher sentences require confirmation by the Diwán. The District judges may inflict 7 years' imprisonment, fine to any amount, and 30 stripes. The *subhás* or collectors have the same powers. The *náibs*, *subhás*, and *tahsíldárs* are entrusted with power to inflict 2 years' imprisonment, and a fine of £100. In the city of Baroda there are 2 magistrates, one of whom may give 2 years' imprisonment and fine up to £100; the other, 6 months' imprisonment and fine up to £20. The total number of criminal cases tried during 1875-76 was 6350; 5289 of which, or 80 per cent., resulted in convictions. The total number of accused persons was, in round numbers, 10,000, and the ratio of convictions to acquittals was 55 per cent.

The police of the three Districts in Guzerat Proper, and of the city of Baroda, has been lately reorganized. In Amreli, police arrangements are not yet completed.

There is a central jail in Baroda for life prisoners and those sentenced to long terms of imprisonment. In addition, there are 5 *zilá* or District jails and 30 *mahál* or Subdivisional jails. In the central jail there were, on the 1st of April 1876, 450 prisoners.

The general administration is carried on in the following manner. The Diwán or Prime Minister, Sir T. Mádhava Ráo, K.C.S.I., exercises supervision over every department. Under one officer are placed the political, military, and settlement departments; under another, the judicial, *khangi* (private), general, and educational; under a third, the

police, jail, municipality, medical, and public works; under a fourth, the audit, treasury, accounts, and mint. The salary of these four officers under the Diwán varies from £100 to £150 a month. Almost every department in the State has been reorganized within the last eighteen months; and it is not probable that the preceding statement will adequately describe the system of administration when the present transition is once fairly over.

As an independent State, Baroda has from the earliest times exercised the prerogative of coinage at its own mint. The silver coins are termed the new *syasháhi* or *bábásháhi* rupees; the copper coins, Baroda *pice*. The Baroda rupee is of the value of about 13 *ánnás* 11 *pies*, British currency; or 114½ *bábásháhi* are equal to Rs. 100 or £10. In the year ending July 1876, 3,669,500 *bábásháhi* rupees were coined, representing a value of £317,705, and the net profit to the State was £4658. The Baroda coinage circulates throughout the State, and also in the adjoining countries of the Rewá Kántá. The old Broach coinage is still in circulation in Navsári District. It is at present in contemplation to strike a coinage similar to the British, and to introduce machinery into the Baroda mint. The following is the rude process still adopted in coining:—A large hole is made in the ground, in which is placed an earthenware vessel capable of containing 20,000 *tolás* of silver; the metal is then poured with spoons into long, thin, shallow moulds, each containing from 10 to 20 *tolás* of silver. After cooling, quantities of 100 to 500 *tolás* are handed over to the goldsmiths, who clean them and stamp them by hand.

The telegraph wire accompanies the railway throughout its course, and there is also a Government wire to Baroda.

There is 1 hospital in the city of Baroda, and 4 dispensaries throughout the State, including those at the military stations of Okhámandal and Dhári. The total number treated in 1875 was 1281 in-door and 7490 out-door patients. During the same year there were 23 vaccinators employed, who operated upon 38,639 persons.

In the year 1875-76, there were 70 schools maintained at the cost of the State, with an average attendance of 4905 pupils. The expenditure amounted to Baroda Rs. 32,604, or about £2822. The 70 schools included a high school, a vernacular college, an Anglo-vernacular school, 56 vernacular schools (of which 3 were girls' schools), and 11 Sanskrit schools of the indigenous type, in most of which some one of the Vedás, astronomy, grammar, or logic are taught. There is no library or local newspaper. The department of education is under a native with a monthly salary of £50, who has the assistance of an inspector of schools. A total of £10,000 has been sanctioned for expenditure under this head in 1876-77.

The Baroda State comprises 3707 towns and villages, besides the

city of Baroda, of which 30 contain a population of more than 5000 inhabitants each.

Climate.—Over so wide a range of country, the climate necessarily varies much in character; from the dry air and extreme fluctuations of temperature that mark the north of Guzerat, to the moister and more equable climate of the south. From its open situation on the sea-coast, Okhámandal enjoys a healthy and bracing air, well suited to the European constitution. The climate of the central division, and of the city of Baroda itself, is comparatively moist, and during the rains very damp. The average annual rainfall during the last 10 years was 37·33 inches; the maximum temperature during the last 5 years was 96°.

Baroda.—Large and flourishing agricultural village in Rohtak District, Punjab; situated on Butána branch of Western Jumna Canal. Lat. 29° 9′ 30″ N., long. 76° 40′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 5124 souls, comprising 4863 Hindus and 261 Muhammadans.

Baroda City.—The capital of the territory of the Gáekwár, in 22° 17′ 30″ N. lat., and 73° 16′ E. long. It contains 24,027 houses, and a population (1872) of 112,057 souls, being the second city of Guzerat, and third in the Bombay Presidency. It is situated east of the deep, sunk bed of the little river Vishwámitri, over whose tortuous course and side channels four stone bridges have been erected, leading from the cantonment to the town. The largest of these was thus referred to nearly a century ago by Mr. Forbes in his *Oriental Memoirs*:—'It is a stone bridge consisting of two ranges of arches over each other. I mention it because it is the only bridge I ever saw in India.' His description of the city, though somewhat highly coloured, needs but few alterations and additions. The beautiful trees by which it was then surrounded still half conceal numerous temples and tombs, chiefly of Musalmán noblemen, while here and there are fine wells, such as the *Nav Lakh ki Báwadi*—the Nine *Lakh* (or £90,000) Well—near the tomb of the Amín Sáhib. 'The city proper is intersected by two spacious streets, dividing it into four equal parts, meeting in the centre in the market-place, which contains a square pavilion with three bold arches on each front. This pavilion is a Mughal building, as is everything else that has the smallest claim to grandeur and elegance. The Marhattá structures are mean and shabby—none more so than the Darbár finished by Fateh Sinh, which resembles most Hindu palaces in want of taste and proportion of architecture and elegance in the interior decorations.' This condemnation applies equally to the palace built by the late Syáji Mahárájá, and now occupied by the present Gáekwár and his queen,—a shapeless heap of crowded little rooms and narrow winding staircases. Immediately behind it and the pavilion already alluded to, towers high above the town the Nagar

Bágh Palace, commenced by the ex-Gáekwár Malhar Ráo, and not yet completed, though £150,000 has already been spent on it. Although unduly crowded by the neighbouring houses, this lofty edifice has some architectural merit, and the interior is not wanting in finish. In the neighbourhood of the palace, but somewhat nearer the Laripura gate, are collected most of the bankers' houses. But the wealthiest of the bankers, Mairál, lives in the Muhammad Wádi, a suburb named after the Guzerat king to whom Baroda owes its early pre-eminence. Near the bankers live the jewellers, who drove a thriving trade during the reign of the ex-Gáekwár. Behind the Nagar Bágh is situated the walled arena in which the athlete, the rhinoceros, the elephant, the buffalo, and the ram still fight—though less frequently than of old—for the amusement of the court and holiday-loving populace. On one side of this arena, just beyond the Water-gate, are the aviaries and menageries; while on the other, but beyond the Chámpáner gate, is the *pilkháná*, where, in the time of Khandi Ráo, nearly one hundred elephants were kept at great expense, but now their number has been greatly reduced. Not far from this gate is the Sher Sháh tank, one of the two large reservoirs on which Baroda is dependent for its water supply. It is connected by iron piping with the Mir Jáfar tank, near the Laripura gate; and both are fed by rain-water. The iron pipe was the work of Malhar Ráo, and by its means the large fire which broke out in 1875 in the wealthy quarter of the town was prevented from doing a vast amount of damage. There are no springs in the neighbourhood of Baroda, and the people depend upon wells for their drinking water, which is both insufficient and bad, owing to the entire absence of any system of drainage. Active measures are now being taken by Sir T. Madhava Ráo to remedy these defects. The large majority of the houses are of the meanest description, and so overcrowded that the chief sanitary problem is how to devise accommodation for the large number of inhabitants. There is no doubt that the capital has much increased in size during the present century; and the impress of Musalmán rule, so clearly distinguished by Mr. Forbes, is no longer visible. The chief houses are those in the suburb built by the Gáekwár's ministers and noblemen. Eighteen horse *págás*—large lines—and Khandi Ráo's parade ground cover a considerable portion of the area of the town, while the Gáekwár's gardens and garden palaces, situated to the west and south of the suburbs, form a striking feature of the place. Beyond the Khoti, within the suburbs, are the jail, the high school, and the Government offices. Three miles south of the Ghendá (rhinoceros) gate of the city, is the Makarpurá palace, built by Khandi Ráo.

But most notable of all are the Hindu temples which crowd this religious city. Hard by the stone bridges are two temples to Siva; while numerous lesser shrines perpetuate divine honours rendered to

those who have ruled the State—the Gáekwárs Govind Ráo and Anand Ráo, the Ránis Ghenabai, and the wife of the ex-Gáekwár Malhar Ráo. In them may be seen either their images in stone life-size, or at least their feet as far as the ankle. These are the benefactors who instituted or continued the *khichadi*, or practice of giving food daily to thousands of male and female Bráhmans of the Deccan. This extravagant liberality was extended by Khandi Ráo to the Musalmán poor.

The chief State temples are those of Vithal Mandír, which has the largest allowances; Swámí Náráyan's Mandír, a great edifice; the temple of Khandobá, the tutelary god of the Gáekwár's family; that of Becharájí and Bhímnáth, where Bráhmans undergo penance for the spiritual welfare of the Gáekwárs and the confusion of their enemies, or daily read the Saptashati prayers to Mahá Káli; the temples of Sidhnáth, Káliká, and Bolái, and Lakshman Báwás Rám Mandír. The Guzeratis have their temples, such as that of Nársaiji, Govardhan Náthjí, and Baldewají; and Gopál Ráo Mairál and his heirs maintain the Ganpati Mandír near their residence, and also the temple of Káshi Vishveshwar.

The city proper within the walls is divided into 17 streets or quarters, which extend farthest towards the west, that is, in the direction of the river and the cantonment. Here are the Modi Khána or Gáekwár's commissariat; the quarters named after Syají; after Ráojí Appájí, the Minister who called in the English, in which the Mazumdár and the Nawáb of Baroda, a descendant of Mir Kamál-ud-dín, live; after Gangádhar Shástri, whose murder led to the rupture between the English and the last Peshwá; after Anand Ráo; and after Bábji, the brother of Ráojí Appájí.

The northern suburbs are composed of 12 quarters or streets, the chief of which, named after Fateh Sinh, contains the house of Bháu Sindhiá, the Minister of the late Khandi Ráo, the stables, the carriage-houses, and the Háthi Khāná of the Gáekwár, as well as one of the two schools of athletes. The eastern suburb consists of only 5 streets or quarters, and comprises the arena, the menageries, and Anand Ráo's old palace. The southern suburbs are divided into 11 streets or quarters, one of which, the Muhammad Wádi, is inhabited by the Fadnavis, the first officer in the State by rank, and by the heir of the great banker Gopál Ráo Mairál; there are also quarters named after Khandobás' temple, and the Musalmán fortification called the Monkey's Tower.

The Census of 1872 gives Baroda a population of 112,057 souls. The number of Hindus was 90,680, of whom 17,630 were Bráhmans, and 38,969 belonged to low castes. The total of Muhammadans was swollen to 19,128 by the erroneous inclusion of 6760 Sikhs. Of the Musalmáns proper, 2678 were Patháns, 239 negroes, and 393 Arabs,

the relics, perhaps, of the mercenary troops largely enlisted at one time by the Gáekwár. Bairágis, Gosains, Gorgis, and a few Bhíls made up a total of 1544.

The city has now been placed under a sanitary commissioner and a municipal board. The whole area is considered the property of Government. Unless a document called a *kabálá* is shown, all owners of land pay a tax at the rate of 1s. per foot; if the proprietor can produce a *kabálá* for a portion only of his property, the excess land is charged at 3d. per foot in order to prevent encroachments. The survey made is of course a rough one only, but the income derived from this source amounts to £200 a year. Permission to build or rebuild houses is granted on payment of 2s. (R. 1); to open doors and windows, at 10s. (Rs. 5) per 2 feet, or 1 *gaj*. The income derived from this source is about £160 a year.

Barot. — Municipality and ancient commercial town in Meerut District, North-Western Provinces; distant 27 miles from Meerut; lies on left bank of Eastern Jumna Canal, amid a perfect network of distributaries, which somewhat interfere with the natural lines of drainage, but steps are being taken to remedy this defect. Lat. 29° 6' 5" N., long. 77° 18' 35" E.; pop. (1872), 7056 souls, comprising 5101 Hindus and 1955 Muhammadans. Said to have been founded in the eighth century. Contains two markets, two *bázárs*, ancient fort now used as a police station, post office, school, handsome Hindu and Jain temple, many brick-built houses, inhabited by Saraugi bankers; declining trade in *ghí* and safflower; manufacture of buckets and iron caldrons. The Játs of Barot were conspicuous for disloyalty during the Mutiny, and their estates were confiscated on the restoration of order. Municipal income in 1875-76, £564; from taxes, £445, or 1s. 0¾d. per head of population (8404) within municipal limits.

Barpáli.—Chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 30 miles south-west of the town of Sambalpur, with about 70 villages, and an area of about 25 square miles, of which not quite three-fourths are cultivated. Pop. (1866), 17,304, chiefly agricultural. Chief products—rice, cotton, oil-seeds, pulses, and sugar-cane; manufactures—coarse cloth, *tasar* silk, and brass vessels. The principal town, Barpáli (lat. 21° 11' N., long. 83° 37' 45" E.), with a population of nearly 3000, has an Anglo-vernacular school, attended by 130 pupils, and a female school attended by 30 girls.

Barpetá.—Subdivision in the north-west of Kámrúp District, Assam. Area, 334 square miles; pop. (1872), 146,218; estimated cost of administration, £1984. It was constituted in March 1841.

Barpetá.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name, in the north of Kámrúp District, Assam; on the Chául-Khoyá river, a tributary of the Brahmaputra. Lat. 26° 19' 45" N., long. 91° 3' 20" E.; pop.

(1872), with surrounding villages, 13,100. There is a considerable river-borne trade in rice, oil-seeds, cotton, caoutchouc, etc.

Barrackpur.—Subdivision of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, lying between 22° 40′ 30″ and 22° 49′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 22′ 45″ and 88° 30′ E. long; area, 42 square miles, with 51 villages and 16,057 houses; pop. (1872), 68,629, comprising 47,709 Hindus (69·5 per cent. of population), 19,600 Muhammadans, 1281 Christians, and 39 'others'; average density of population, 1626 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·21; houses per square mile, 380; persons per village, 1346; persons per house, 4·3. The Subdivision consists of the single *tháná* (police circle) of Nawábganj; it contained in 1870-71, 1 magisterial court and a total police of 233 men, including village watch. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year was returned at £2101.

Barrackpur.—Municipality and cantonment in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; on the Húglí river, 15 miles above Calcutta. Lat. 22° 45′ 40″ N., long. 88° 23′ 52″ E.; area, 889 acres, or 1·39 square mile; pop. (1872), 9591, comprising 4952 Hindus, 3548 Muhammadans, 1063 Christians, and 28 'others'; number of males, 5981—females, 3610; municipal revenue in 1872, £235; incidence of municipal taxation, 5⅞d. per head of the population within municipal limits. The name of the place is said to be derived from the fact of troops having been stationed there since 1772. The natives call Barrackpur 'Chának,' after Job Chárnock, the founder of Calcutta, who built a bungalow here, in which he occasionally lived, and established a small *bázár* (1689). To the south of the cantonment is Barrackpur Park, which is laid out with much taste, and contains a small collection of wild animals and birds. Within this park is the suburban residence of the Viceroy of India, built by Lord Minto and enlarged by the Marquis of Hastings; and also the tomb of Lady Canning. Military force stationed in the cantonment on the 1st March 1873:—English—2 batteries of Royal Artillery, consisting of 15 officers and 253 men; detachment of 62d Foot, consisting of 3 officers and 142 men; total strength of English troops, 18 officers and 395 non-commissioned officers and men: Native troops—detachment of Governor-General's Bodyguard, 1 native officer and 12 men; detachment of Bengal Cavalry, 1 European and 3 native officers and 101 men; headquarters 10th Native Infantry, 4 English and 4 native officers and 232 men; 27th Native Infantry, 7 English and 13 native officers and 532 men; total Native troops, 12 English and 21 native officers and 877 non-commissioned officers and men;—total of all ranks, European and Native, 1323. Barrackpur has played an important part in two Sepoy mutinies. In 1824, when Bengal troops were required to take part in the Burmese war, the 47th Bengal Infantry, which was stationed here, was warned

for foreign service. Though at first willing enough to march, a greatly exaggerated account of the check received by the British troops at Rámu cooled their enthusiasm; and when a lying story was circulated, that, owing to the failure of the efforts of the Commissariat Department to obtain land transport, the men were to be put on board ship and taken to Rangoon by sea, the excitement, which had been gradually gaining force, developed into a determination to resist. In spite of the attempts at conciliation made by Colonel Cartwright, who commanded the regiment, they mutinied on parade on the 30th October, declaring that they would not go to Burma by sea, and that they would not march unless allowed 'double *batta*.' A second time (on the 1st November) the Sepoys were mutinous on parade; and the following morning Sir Edward Paget, the commander-in-chief, after an ineffectual attempt at explanation, told the Sepoys that they must either obey the order to march or ground their arms. They refused, and a battery of European artillery, which Sir Edward Paget had brought with him, supported by two English regiments, opened upon the mutineers. They broke at once, and made for the river, throwing away their arms. Some of them were shot, some drowned, and others hanged; and the number of the regiment was removed from the Army List. The cantonment was again the scene of mutiny in 1857. Early in that year the excitement about the alleged pollution of the new cartridges had made itself felt in every military station, and many of the Sepoys firmly believed that the English were deliberately plotting to destroy the caste of the native soldier, and to force him to embrace Christianity. A thousand absurd rumours obtained ready credence, despite the endeavours of General Hearsey, commanding the division, to allay the fears of the men. Incendiarism, clearly traced to the troops, had become common. The excitement grew more intense from week to week, until, on the 29th March, the crisis was brought about by a private of the 34th Native Infantry, named Mangal Pánde, who attempted to kill one of the officers, Lieutenant Baugh, fired at a European sergeant-major, and called upon his comrades to join him. These outrages were committed within a few yards of the quarter-guard, where a native officer and 20 men were on duty, but no steps were taken to interfere. The regiment was disbanded with ignominy on the 6th of May, Mangal Pánde and the native officer in charge of the guard having been previously tried by court-martial and hanged. A full account of these events will be found in Sir John Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War*, vol. i. pp. 266-269, 495 *sq*.

Bársi.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Sholapur District, Bombay Presidency; distant 43 miles north of Sholapur, and 128 miles east of Poona. Lat. 18° 13′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 44′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 18,560; municipal revenue (1874-75), £1325; rate of

taxation, 1s. 5d. per head. Considerable trade is carried on at Bársi, the staples being cotton, linseed, and oil, exported chiefly to Bombay. The estimated annual export of cotton is about 11,400 tons or 52,000 Bombay *candies*, and of linseed, from 80,000 to 90,000 bags of 1½ cwt. each. The town has a sub-judge's court and a post office.

Barsinhpur.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 8 miles north of Unao town. Named after Barsinh Deo, who is said to have reclaimed the site from jungle in the fifteenth century. His descendants are still in possession. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 2261, and Muhammadans, 24—total, 2285, living in 402 mud houses. No market, and no local trade or manufactures.

Barsoí.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal. On the east bank of the Mahánandá; 34 miles from Purniah, and 8 miles from Balrámpur. Lat. 25° 37′ 15″ N., long. 87° 58′ 26″ E. One of the largest weekly markets in the District, attended by people coming from a distance of two or three days' journey. Chief articles of trade—dried fish, tortoises, treacle (*gúr*), country-made cloth, gunny-bags, mats, etc. Police outpost.

Báruipur.—Subdivision of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, lying between 21° 30′ 45″ and 22° 30′ N. lat., and between 88° 25′ 15″ and 88° 50′ 45″ E. long.; area, 449 square miles; number of villages, 632—houses, 33,851; pop. (1872), 196,410, comprising 132,102 Hindus (67·3 per cent. of the population), 63,376 Muhammadans, 626 Christians, and 306 'others;' average density of population, 437 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·41; houses per square mile, 75; persons per village, 311; persons per house, 5·8. The Subdivision consists of the police circles (*thánás*) of Báruipur, Pratápnagar, Jáinagar, and Matlá. In 1870-71 it contained 1 magisterial court, and a total police force, including village watch, of 508 men. The separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year was returned at £5006. The Subdivision was formed in 1858. A local legend giving an account of the rise of the wealthy family of *zamíndárs* (land-holders) in this Subdivision will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. i. pp. 119, 120.

Báruipur ('*Village of* Pán-*growers*').—Municipality in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated 16 miles south of Calcutta, on the east bank of the Adi Gangá, the now almost dry bed of the ancient channel of the Ganges; headquarters of the Subdivision of same name. Lat. 22° 21′ 30″ N., long. 88° 29′ E.; area in 1869, 5·42 square miles; number of houses, 734; pop. (1869), 3231 (males 1665, females 1566); average density of population, 596 per square mile; persons per house, 4·4; municipal revenue in 1869, £184; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 1d. per head of population within municipal limits; police, 11 men. *Pán* or betel-leaf is extensively grown in the

village, whence its name (*bárui*, '*pán*-grower'). It is a mission station of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and has a church capable of holding 700 people.

Bárul.—Iron ore field in Bardwán District, Bengal. Bárul is a village in the middle of the iron tract (lat. 23° 44′ N., long. 87° 9′ E.), and for the sake of convenience the name is applied to the whole field. Bounded as follows:—On the north, Churuliá; on the east, Jámsol; on the west and south, Satur, to within about half a mile of the village of Rájpur. Throughout this entire area, iron ore of excellent quality has been found. According to a careful estimate made by a skilled inspector in 1855, each square mile should yield 6½ millions of tons of iron ore, capable of producing in pig iron no less than 1,600,000 tons, 'equal to the make of eight furnaces, at 70 tons per week, for a period, in round numbers, of rather more than 59 years.' The only serious difficulty in the way of the profitable manufacture of iron is the scarcity of flux. The whole subject is carefully discussed in a Report published in 1856 by Mr. David Smith, Government iron and coal viewer, who had been deputed to report on the iron deposits in Bardwán District, and on the suitability of the local coal for the manufacture of iron. The portion of his report referring to this field is quoted fully in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iv. pp. 125-133.

Báruníbuntá. — Hills in Cuttack District, Bengal; the highest range in the District. They are densely covered with primitive jungle, and the surrounding country is inhabited by the aboriginal tribe of Savars. Principal peak, MAHAVINYAKA, with Sivaite temples and images.

Barur.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berár; the headquarters of the Morsí *táluk*, on the Chorámaan river, 65 miles east of Ellichpur. Lat. 21° 8′ 30″ N., long. 77° 46′ E.; pop. (1868), 7065, chiefly Mális. Houses mostly flat-roofed. Market on Sundays. Trade in cotton, turmeric, and molasses. The temples to Mahádeo and Rámchandra are interesting. Public buildings—*tahsíldár's* court, police station, rest-house for travellers, Government and private schools.

Bárwa (*Baruva*).—A town and port in the estate of same name, Ganjam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 52′ 40″ N., long. 84° 37′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 6739, 24 per cent. of the working portion being fishermen and boatmen; houses, 1902. Situated at the southernmost limit of the Uriyá country. Exports, chiefly in copra and copra oil, valued in 1875-76 at £8677; imports, £796. Visited by 34 ships during that year.

Barwála.—Town in Ahmedabad District, Bombay; on the left bank of the river Utauli, 80 miles south-west of Ahmedabad. Lat. 22° 8′ 15″ N., long. 71° 57′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 5813. The town is surrounded with a wall.

Barwála.—A *tahsíl* of Hissár District, Punjab, lying between 29° 16′ 45″ and 29° 36′ 30″ N. lat., and between 75° 47′ 45″ and 76° 4′ 15″ E. long.

Barwála.—Town in Hissár District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl;* distant 18 miles north-east of Hissár. Pop. (1868), 3305 souls. Surrounding ruins testify former importance; now merely a local centre of no commercial consideration. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office. Principal inhabitants, Sayyids, who own the neighbouring country.

Barwan.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Saromannagar and Pali *parganás*, east by Báwan, south by Sándi, and west by Katiári *parganás*. According to local tradition, the country was originally held by the Thatheras, who were afterwards expelled by the Sombansis. They in their turn gave way before the Muhammadans; but in the beginning of the 15th century, Rájá Barwan, grandson of the Sombansi chief who had fled to the Kumaun Hills, was allowed by the Governor of Kanauj to resume possession of his grandfather's domain, and to establish himself at Baburhia, the deserted capital of the Thatheras, which he re-named Barwan. For a time the country was held by two brothers, descendants of Rájá Barwan, who refused to pay tribute, and resisted all attempts at coercion. Eventually they were persuaded to send their sons to Akbár's court, who so distinguished themselves by military service in the Deccan that the Emperor bestowed upon them a formal rent-free grant of the *parganá*, together with the title of Khán. The Sombansís have held Barwan uninterruptedly for 4½ centuries, and are still in possession of 68 out of the 69 villages which comprise the *parganá*. They have always given much trouble to the revenue authorities, and were until recent years notorious thieves and cattle-lifters. Physically, Barwan may be described as a backward, roadless, and somewhat inaccessible *parganá*, lying along both sides of the Garra river, between the central *bangar* or high lands and the low-lying *kachh* country along the Ganges and Rámganga. To the east the country consists of a high irregular ridge of sand, sinking westward into a low and fertile marshy tract watered by winding streams and *jhils*, and overgrown here and there with patches of *dhák* jungle. Area, 53 square miles, of which 33 are cultivated. Government land revenue demand, £2843, 10s.; average incidence, 2s. 8½d. per acre of cultivated area, or 1s. 8¼d. per acre of total area. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 18,739; Muhammadans, 467; total, 19,206, viz. 10,752 males and 8454 females. The percentage of females to males among the agricultural population is only 75·6, the lowest rate in any of the Oudh *parganás*. Number of villages, 69; average density of population, 362 per square mile. Five village schools, including one for girls.

Barwan.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; on the right bank of the Garra river, 13 miles west of Hardoi, and 19 miles east of Fatehgarh. The fort was destroyed on the re-occupation of the country after the Mutiny. Barwan is now an insignificant village of 244 mud huts, with a population (1869) of 1584. Little trade of its own, but considerable quantities of cotton, grain, timber, hides, and sugar pass down the Garra from Bareilly, Sháhjahánpur, Anúpshahr, and Pilibhít, on their way to Cawnpore, Mirzapur, and Benares. Government school.

Barwáni.—State in the Deputy Bheel Agency, in relation with the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It lies north of Khandesh, on the left bank of the Nerbudda river. Area, 2000 square miles; estimated population in 1875 (mostly Bheels), 33,020; revenue in the same year, £9394. The Ránás of this State are Sesodia Rájputs of the Oodeypore family, who separated from the parent stock about the 14th century. From the beginning of the last century the power of the Ránás of Barwáni gradually declined. Their country, originally of considerable extent, was devastated by the Marhattás, and at length only a strip of the Sátpura range, 80 miles in length, with the lowlands on either side, remained to them. They did not, however, become tributary to any of the Malwa chiefs. In 1860, owing to the incapacity of the Ráná, Jeswant Sinh, the State was taken under British management, and so remained till 1873, when it was restored to the Ráná on the understanding that his continuance in power would depend on his ability to administer his State rightly. Barwáni pays no tribute to, and receives no allowance from, the British Government. It pays Hali Rs. 4000 per annum towards the cost of the Malwa Bheel Corps. The Ráná receives a salute of nine guns.

Barwar.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh. Lat. 27° 50′ N., long. 80° 24′ E.; pop. (1869), Hindus, 2500, and Muhammadans, 907—total, 3407. Situated on an open, fertile plain, surrounded by groves and highly cultivated fields. Remains of brick fort, built by Nawáb Mukhtadar Khán; 4 mosques; and 1 Hindu temple. Manufacture of sugar. Town has been Government property since 1785.

Barwa Ságar.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; distant 12 miles from Jhánsi, on the Naugáon road. Lat. 25° 22′ 35″ N., long. 78° 46′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 5815 souls, comprising 5556 Hindus, 247 Musalmáns, and 12 Christians or others. Picturesquely situated at the foot of a rocky ridge on the shore of the Barwa Ságar Lake, an artificial sheet of water formed by a masonry embankment three-quarters of a mile in length, and containing two craggy, wooded islets. Flights of steps lead down from the embankment to the water's edge. Below, a tract of land, extending over 4 miles, is thickly planted with mango and other trees, often of great

age and enormous size. The work was constructed by Udit Sinh, Rájá of Orchha, between 1705 and 1737. Irrigation canals, several miles in length, have been excavated from the edge of the lake, but are now of little use owing to leakage. North-west of the town rises a fine old castle, also built by Udit Sinh, but now uninhabited. Its last occupant was the celebrated Rání of Jhánsi. Three miles west stand the remains of an old Chandel temple, built of solid blocks of stone, carved with the figures of Hindu gods, much defaced by Musalmáns. The town consists of three divisions, separated by stretches of cultivated land, and the houses are prettily embosomed in foliage. First-class police station, post office, staging bungalow. Income under Act xx. of 1856, £82 in 1872; incidence of taxation, 3½d. per head.

Basanta.—Stream in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; fed by numerous hill torrents, and itself falling into the Ravi a few miles east of the Ben. Carries a large volume of water in the rains; much used for purposes of irrigation.

Basantiá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; on the Bhairab river, 12 miles east of Jessor town. Lat. 23° 8′ N., long. 89° 24′ E. Being the nearest point to Jessor to which boats of large size can come, it may be said to serve as a port to that town, with a considerable trade in sugar, and in the import of rice. Much country traffic is also carried on by road between Basantiá and Jessor.

Basantpur.—Trading village at the confluence of the Kálindí and Jamuná rivers, on the northern boundary of the Twenty-four Parganás, Sundarbans, Bengal. Lat. 22° 27′ 30″ N., long. 89° 2′ 15″ E. Being the point of convergence of the two great boat routes between Calcutta and Eastern Bengal (known as the Inner and Outer Sundarban Passage), it is an important trading place, and does much business with the Eastern Districts, principally in paddy. All boats put in here for provisions and fresh water, and also for repairs. There is good anchorage for country craft of any burthen. The Revenue Surveyor, in 1857, returned the number of houses at 109, and the adult population at 224 souls.

Basantpur.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 1′ N., long. 85° 7′ E.; pop. (1872), 5130, comprising 4781 Hindus and 349 Muhammadans; number of males 2545, females 2585. The village is close to the main road leading from Lálganj to Sáhibganj. A little to the north of it is the Kewalpurá outwork of the Saryá indigo factory.

Baserá (or *Baseda*).—Village in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; 11 miles from Muzaffarnagar town. Pop. (1872), 3832, chiefly Játs; 800 mud houses, and 30 shops. The village is tolerably well kept, and the villagers—agriculturists—are generally prosperous. Good well-water found 33 feet below surface.

Bashahr.—One of the Punjab Hill States, lying between 31° 6′ 30″ and 32° 4′ 30″ N. lat., and between 77° 32′ 15″ and 79° 2′ 30″ E. long.; area, 3320 square miles; estimated pop. (1872), 90,000; estimated revenue, £5000. Between 1803 and 1815, Bashahr was held in subjection by the conquering Gurkhas. On the overthrow of the Gurkha power in 1815, the British Government confirmed the Rájá of Bashahr, by a *sanad*, in possession of all his territories, except Rawain, which was transferred to Keonthal, subject to the payment of £1500 per annum. This is the only instance in which tribute properly so called was exacted by the British Government on the restoration of their States to the Hill Rájás. In 1847 the tribute was reduced to £394, as compensation for the abolition of transit duties. The present Rájá, Shamsher Sinh, succeeded in 1849. He traces back his descent for 120 generations. The family are Rájputs. The Rájá is required to furnish troops in aid of the British Government in time of war, and labour for the construction of roads in the Bashahr territory. Sentences of death require confirmation; other punishments are awarded by the Rájá on his own authority.

Básim (*Wásim*).—A British District in Berar, under the jurisdiction of the Resident at Hyderabad in the Deccan; lying between 19° 26′ and 20° 31′ N. lat., and between 76° 39′ and 78° 7′ E. long.; extreme length from north-west to south-east, about 61 miles. Bounded on the north by Akola and Amráoti Districts, on the south by the Penganga river and the Nizam's Dominions, on the east by Wún District, and on the west by Buldána District. Area, 2958 square miles; population in 1867, 276,408 souls. The ancient town of BASIM is the administrative headquarters of the District, and also of the *táluk* of the same name. A good metalled road connects the town with Akola station on the Great Indian Peninsular Railway 50 miles north; a similar road leads to Hingoli, 27 miles south, a cantonment of the Hyderabad contingent.

Physical Aspects.—Básim, the more westerly of the two *táluks* of the District, is a rich tableland about 1000 feet above sea level. Pusad, the eastern *táluk*, is mainly a succession of low hills covered with poor grass. The soil of the hollows between the hills is usually of the best quality. Many of the hill peaks rise to a height of 2000 feet. Iron ore is plentiful throughout the high lands; and along the ranges of the Pusad *táluk* stretch wide slopes of woodland containing many patches of young teak, almost all shoots from stumps of old trees, about 12 inches in girth 6 feet from the ground, and about 20 feet high. No valuable timber now exists. The best is to be found between the Pús and the Penganga rivers. The area of unreserved forests is 261 square miles. Several of the forest trees yield gums, dyes, and medicines, and the jungles supply abundant

fuel. The mango, the *mahuá*, and other fruit trees are found in all the village lands except those of the western *parganás*. The two principal rivers are the Pús and the Káta Púrna, mountain streams which rise close to each other at the village of Káta, north of Básim town. The Pús flowing south falls into the Penganga after a course of about 64 miles. The Káta Púrna flowing north enters Akola District near Mhán, after forcing its way through a deep gorge. The old military road between Jálna and Nágpur intersects the District from south-west to north-east. The larger wild animals are tigers, leopards, bears, wild hog, several varieties of deer; small game abounds.

History.—The only materials for the early history of the District are such as may possibly be found on further examination of the Jain and Buddhist sculptured temples of Sirpur and Pusad, etc. According to historic tradition, the Jains were in power immediately before the Muhammadan invasion by Alá-ud-Dín, A.D. 1294, who subjugated Ellichpur and its dependencies in which Básim was included. Thenceforward, though with intervals of partially regained independence, the country continued subject to Muhammadan rule till 1596, when Berar was ceded to Prince Murád on behalf of his father, Akbar, by Chan Sultána, regent for her son. The condition of affairs calling for Akbar's presence, he personally visited the Deccan in 1599, and consolidated his conquests by making Berar an Imperial Subah, of which Básim formed a *Sarkár* (Division). It does not appear to have been the scene of any remarkable event influencing the fortunes of its rulers. The hills north of the Penganga are inhabited by Hatkars—*Bargi Dhangars*, or 'the shepherds with the spears.' These men, in 1600, held sway in the country round Básim, and are described as a 'refractory and perfidious' race. They were, in truth, clans under highland chiefs, who owned little more than nominal allegiance to the lowland rulers, whether Hindu or Muhammadan; and thus they continued till the introduction of British rule. After the death of Akbar, the Mughal emperors maintained their authority with more or less vigour till about 1670, when the Marhattá forays became frequent. In 1671, Pratáp Ráo, a general of Sivají, plundered as far east as Karinjá, just beyond the north-east corner of Básim District, and first exacted from the village officers a pledge to pay *chauth*. After the death of Aurangzeb, *chauth* and *sardesh mukhi* were formally granted (1717) to the Marhattás by Farrukh Siyyar. In 1724, Chin Khilich Khán, viceroy of the Deccan, under the title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, gained the crowning victory over the Imperial party, which gave him the supremacy in the Province, which he and his descendants thereafter held in part ownership with the Marhattás, who took 60 per cent. of the revenue when they could. In 1795, the Marhattás compelled the acceptance of onerous terms of accommodation entailing large cessions of territory, of which Umárkhed in Básim District was a

portion, and a cash payment of £3,000,000. That portion of Berar made over to the Nizám by the partition treaty of 1804 included Básim, which was plundered by Pindáris in 1809. The Náiks of the District, too, had become breakers instead of guardians of the peace, and in 1819 Nowsájí Náik Muski gave battle to the Nizám's regular troops under Major Pitman before Umarkhed. He was driven into his stronghold Nowa (garrisoned by 500 Arabs), which was carried by assault after a gallant defence, and Nowsájí Náik was sent to Hyderabad, where he died. By the treaty of 1822, between the British and the Nizám, Umarkhed *parganá*, which had belonged to the Peshwá, was transferred to the Nizám. The administration of Hyderabad State for many years of this century had fallen into great disorder, and the British Government had to advance the pay of the contingent maintained in accordance with the treaty of 1800, although they had other unsatisfied claims against the Nizám. To meet these difficulties, the treaty of 1853 was concluded, whereby the Districts (of which Básim is one) now known as Berar were assigned to the British. This treaty has been modified by a second treaty in 1860-61. In 1859, a band of plundering Rohillás was pursued by a detachment of the Hyderabad Contingent into the village of Chichamba, near Risod, in Básim *táluk*, where behind walls they resisted an assault by the fatigued troops, in which Captain Mackinnon was killed.

Population.—The Census of 1867 shows a population of 276,408, and an area of 2958 square miles. The Administrative Report for 1876-77 returns an estimated population in that year of 301,284, of whom 186,298 were males and 114,986 females; average density, 102 per square mile; number of Hindus, 270,503; Muhammadans, 15,293; Buddhists, 447; Christians, 5; aborigines, 15,036. No separate classification of Hindus is available, but the Kunbí caste forms the majority. The Hatkars (*Bargi Dhangars*), who inhabit (speaking generally) the hills on the north bank of the Penganga, are independent in bearing, and of fine physique, closely resembling each other—a fact which may be accounted for by the constant and exclusive intermarriage of their three great families. They do not allow the hair on the face to be cut. If a male Hatkar die of wounds received in battle or the chase, his corpse is burned with his feet to the east, otherwise he is buried sitting cross-legged with a small piece of gold in the mouth. Women who die in childbirth are burned, others are buried. Widows can contract a *pát* marriage; a man can only have one *lagan*, but several *pát* wives. Hatkars will not eat the flesh of the cow or the pig. Their god is called Khandoba. The Náiks of this District are principally Hatkars. Their power was broken by Brigadier Sutherland, under whose orders offenders failing to surrender themselves by a given date were hanged.

Básim town is resorted to at certain seasons by pilgrims desirous to bathe in the Padma Tirtha tank. Risod is said to have been originally known as *Rishi wut Kshetr*, or 'the place of all the Rishis'; but the most famous shrine is that of Anturiksh Parasnáth at SIRPUR. The population of Mangrúl Pír is largely Musalmán. Ruined mosques and other buildings attest its former prosperity.

The principal towns are—Básim, population (according to Administrative Report, 1876-77), 9296; Umarkhed (Census of 1867), 5753; Mangrúl Pír, 5753; Risod, 4716; Sirpur, 3515; Púsad, 3497.

Agriculture.—The staple crops are cotton and *joár* (great millet), neither of which require much rain. The cotton is all *banni*, or the best and earliest kind. Considerable quantities of coarse rice are grown on unirrigated land, which has to be manured for the crop. Good land does not require a thorough ploughing more than once every seventh year, inferior land every third year. In the Básim *táluk* the autumn crops are estimated to cover $\frac{9}{16}$ of the cultivated area—the spring crops, $\frac{7}{16}$; the estimate for the Púsad *táluk* is, for autumn, $\frac{3}{4}$, and spring, $\frac{1}{4}$. The country about Mangrúl Pír and Púsad formerly supplied the Hyderabad Contingent with horses; but since Arab horses have been substituted, the stock has not been kept up, and at present there are not 100 horses in the District fit for troopers. Many of the carts, in Púsad *táluk* especially, have stone wheels; but carts are only required to carry the harvest, pack-bullocks, buffaloes, and camels being used for ordinary traffic. In 1876-77, 937,516 acres were under cultivation. The most important crops were *joár*, 307,824 acres; cotton, 221,169; wheat, 101,705; gram, 87,407; *tíl*, 29,528; hemp or flax, 3395; castor-oil plant, 4449; sugar-cane, 1693; rice, 7256; *sáma* (a millet), 22,530; opium, 1508. In 1869 there were 3758 wells in the District, of which 1136 were in bad repair. The uncertainty of reaching water at all, or of its being fit for use if reached, renders the construction of wells hazardous and costly. Under Muhammadan rule, the revenue was generally farmed out, and all proprietary rights were vested in the sovereign, though no doubt minor prescriptive privileges were acknowledged. The Bombay system of survey and settlement has now been introduced into the Province. It confers absolute proprietary rights on the registered revenue-payer, on certain conditions; and the assessment is only subject to enhancement after the expiry of the agreed term, and not then unless upon good reason shown. During the rule of the Peshwá, extravagant life-grants were made to Bráhmans and Pandits, most of whom contrived to have them transmitted to heirs. Rent rates—the average rate for land suited for cotton is 1s. per acre; for wheat land, 1s. 3d.; for *joár*, 1s.; opium, 7s.; rice, 4s.; gram, 1s. 6d. The wage of skilled labour is 1s. 6d. per day; of unskilled labour, 6d. Prices in 1876-77 were—for cotton, 2½ *sers* per

rupee; wheat, 16 *sers;* gram, 20 *sers; joár*, 20 *sers.* A plough bullock costs £4; a sheep, 6s.

Manufactures and Trade.—The chief manufactures of the District are coarse cotton cloth, blankets, and a little paper. The number of cotton handlooms in 1876-77 was 3642, and of looms for wool, 1870. The principal exports are cotton and wheat, which go to Bombay; gums, dyes, and forest produce are sent to Hingoli. The chief trading towns are Básim and Umarkhed; the principal fairs are held at Risod, Sirpur, Malegaon, Púsad, Umarkhed, Talegaon, and Nagartás. There are in the District 245 miles of made road.

Administration.—The total area professionally surveyed up to 1877 was 1,637,691 acres, of which 937,516 were under cultivation, 176,054 cultivable, 175,513 grazing land, 348,608 uncultivable waste. Some cultivators, where the land is hilly and poor, have thrown up their leases, and the assessment may need reconsideration. Sixty-three villages held under the Waste Land Rules, on an area of 147,717 acres, yield a revenue of £875. The number of villages on the Government rent roll is 951. The land revenue for 1876-77 was £53,533; total gross revenue, £65,772.

The District is administered by a Deputy-Commissioner and assistants, European and Native. There are 3 revenue Subdivisions. *Dakáiti* and robbery have much decreased under British rule; some increase of petty thefts in 1876-77 is ascribed to the high price of grain, caused by exports to famine Districts in the west and south of India. There is one small receiving jail, from which prisoners are transferred to the central jail at Akola; daily average of inmates, 22·23; expenditure per head, £11, 12s. Of the total number of convicts, 122 were Hindus, 31 Muhammadans, 4 Buddhists or Jains, and 70 'others.' The Muhammadans, who are only as 1 to 17 of the Hindu population, are as 1 to 4 of the convicts. There were in 1876-77, 83 Government and aided schools, with 2844 pupils; and a central book depôt, with several branches. The only municipality is Básim town; population within municipal limits, 9296; receipts for 1876-77, £355; incidence of municipal taxation per head of population, 9d.

Meteorological Aspects.—The climate of Básim is preferred to that of the other Districts in Berar; the hot wind which blows during the day in the summer months is succeeded at night by a cool breeze. Highest shade temperature at Básim in May, 104° F.; lowest in December, 63°; rainfall for 1876, 30·54 inches, which was below the average—29 inches fell from June to September. The principal diseases are fevers, bowel complaints, and cholera. Ratio of deaths per 1000 of population, 32·1. Two Government dispensaries and one civil hospital afforded medical relief in 1876 to 7048 patients; 11,901 persons were vaccinated by the vaccine department or at the civil dispensaries.

Básim.—Municipal town in Berar, headquarters of District and *táluk* of same name. Lat. 20° 6′ 45″ N., long. 77° 11′ E.; height above sea level, 1758 feet; pop. (1876) within municipal limits, 9296; distant 50 miles south-south-east from Akola, on the Great Indian Peninsular Railway, and 27 miles north from the military station of Hingoli; good metalled roads connect it with both these places. It is said to be a very old town, founded by Wachh, a Rishi, and originally named after him *Wachh Gulin.* A legend tells of a king, Wasúki, affected with leprosy, who was cured by bathing in a pool outside the town, which he enlarged to a tank, known as Padma Tírtha, still largely resorted to for bathing in. It is said to petrify articles exposed to its action. The Desmukhs of Básim, in the 17th century, received large grants of land and perquisites from the Mughal Emperor, and the family have always been of some consideration in South Berar. After the Bhonsla ceased to receive a share ($\frac{4}{10}$) of the revenue of the *parganá*, the Nizám stationed troops and established a mint at Básim. The most striking buildings are the temple and tank of Bálají, constructed about 100 years ago by Bhawáni Kálu, a general of the Bhonslas. The town has a post office, police station, and two good Government schools. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £355; incidence of municipal taxation, 9d. per head of population.

Basinakonda.—A rock in the Madanapalli *táluk*, Cuddapah District, Madras; height, 660 feet above the town of Madanapalli, or 2800 feet above sea level. On the summit stands a pagoda to Vekatashaswámí, who is supposed to have placed one foot here while travelling to Tripatty, the other foot resting on Gandikót.

Basi Tang (or *Toung*).—Mountain range in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. Principal peak, Basitang (21° 31′ N. lat., and 92° 29 E. long.); height, 2181 feet. The hills are very steep, thickly covered with jungle, and uninhabited by men.

Baskhárí.—Town in Fyzabad District, Oudh; 9 miles west of Birhar, and 50 miles south-east of Fyzabad. Founded by a famous Muhammadan saint, named Makhdum Ashraf, about 1388 A.D., and still in the possession of his descendants. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 1894, and Muhammadans, 612—total, 2506; 3 mosques and 3 Hindu temples; police station; Government school.

Basmangi.—Hill in Tumkur District, Mysore State. Crowned with fortifications, and containing on its summit a temple of Bhasmangeswara. It possesses a perennial supply of water. A few of the wild tribe of Bedars live half-way up, and cultivate the fields below. Lat. 13° 44′ N., long. 77° 6′ E.

Básoda.—Native State in the Bhopal Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; originally a feudatory of Sindhia. In 1817 it was seized by Sindhia, but was restored by order

of the British Government, and all connection with Gwalior has since ceased. It pays no tribute, and is now directly under the British Government. The capital of the State is in lat. 23° 50′ 50″ N., and long. 77° 55′ E. The Nawáb (Amar Alí Khán), a Pathán by descent, is an intelligent and energetic ruler. Area, 68 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 5440; revenue, £700. The military force consists of 3 guns, 8 artillerymen, 12 *sowárs*, and 60 policemen.

Basorhi.—*Parganá* in Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Daryabad, on the south by Mawai Maholára, and on the west by the Kalyáni river. Area, 34 square miles, of which 25 are cultivated, the principal crops being rice, wheat, and barley; pop. (1869), Hindus, 18,585, and Muhammadans, 4369—total, 22,954, of whom 11,577 are males and 11,377 females; number of villages, 44, of which 14½ are held under *tálukdárí* and 29½ under *zamíndárí* tenure; average density of population, 675 per square mile.

Básrá.—Village on the Bidyádharí river, in the Twenty-four Parganás, Sundarbans, Bengal, and a station on the Calcutta and South-Eastern Railway; 20 miles from Calcutta, and 8 from Port Canning. Lat. 22° 22′ N., long. 88° 37′ E. Important depôt of the timber trade of the Sundarbans, and the scene of a weekly market (*hát*), at which rice and stores of all kinds are sold. It was here that the celebrated *fakír*, Mobrah Ghází, who overawed the wild beasts and rode through the jungles on a tiger, settled while the place was yet in the heart of the forest. His protection is, to this day, invoked by woodcutters before entering the jungle. The legend of Mobrah Ghází and his connection with the present wealthy family of landholders in the Báruipur Subdivision, in which Básrá is situated, is given in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. i. pp. 119, 120.

Basrúr (*Abu-sarúr* of Ibn Batuta, *Bacelor*, *Básilor*).—Town in the Kúndápur *táluk*, South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 40′ N., long. 75° 10′ E.; pop. (1871), 1570; houses, 326. Now almost deserted, but once a large walled town with a fort and temple, and mentioned as an important trading place by all the Arabian geographers. The walls and water-gates still remain in good preservation.

Bassein.—Island off the coast of the Konkan, Bombay Presidency, separated by a narrow channel from the mainland. It lies between 19° 20′ and 19° 28′ N. lat., and between 72° 48′ and 72° 54′ E. long.; being about 11 miles in length from south-east to north-west, and 3 in breadth; estimated area, 35 square miles. With the exception of two rugged hills of considerable size, the surface of the island is flat, and its soil rich, yielding crops of rice, plantain, sugar-cane, and *pán* (Piper betel).

Bassein (*Wasái*).—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Tánná District, Bombay; about 5 miles from the Bassein

Road Station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, and 28 miles north of Bombay. Lat. 19° 20′ 20″ N., long. 72° 51′ 20″ E.; population (1872), 4063; municipal income (1874-75), £567; rate of taxation, 1s. 2½d. per head of the population (9356) within municipal limits. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Bassein early attracted the notice of the Portuguese, as the river or strait separating the island from the mainland was a convenient rendezvous for shipping. In 1534, Bassein, with the land in its neighbourhood, was ceded to them by Bahádur Sháh, King of Guzerát, and two years later the fort was built. For more than two centuries Bassein remained in the hands of the Portuguese, and during this time it rose to such prosperity that the city came to be called the Court of the North, and its nobles were proverbial for their wealth and magnificence. With plentiful supplies of both timber and stone, Bassein was adorned by many noble buildings, including a cathedral, 5 convents, 13 churches, and an asylum for orphans. The dwellings of the Hidalgos, or aristocracy, who alone were allowed to live within the city walls, are described (1675) as stately buildings, two storeys high, graced with covered balconies and large windows. Towards the end of the 17th century Bassein suffered severely from outbreaks of the plague, so deadly that in 1695 one-third of the population was swept away. In spite of the general decay of Portuguese power in the 17th century, Bassein, as late as 1720, would seem to have retained much of its prosperity. In that year the population is returned at 60,499 souls, and the revenue a few years later (1729) at as much as £45,706 (Xer. 914,125). But the wealth of one city was unable to stay the advance of Marhattá power. In 1739 (February 17), Chimnáji Appá, a distinguished Marhattá general, at the head of a powerful army, appeared before Bassein. After a siege of three months, conducted on both sides with the greatest skill and courage, the garrison was forced to capitulate, and the town and District of Bassein passed into the hands of the Peshwá. Under the Marhattás, Bassein became the chief place in their territories between the Bánkot river and Daman; but they did not long keep possession of the city. In 1780, after a siege of twelve days, Bassein was captured by a British army, under the command of General Goddard. By the treaty of Salbai (1782) it was restored to the Marhattás; and in 1818, on the overthrow and deposition of the last of the Peshwás, it was resumed by the English and incorporated with Tánná District of the Bombay Presidency.

Of old Bassein, the walls and ramparts remain in a state of good preservation. Within the enclosure, the ruins of the cathedral of the Dominican convent, of the Jesuit Church of St. Paul, and of St. Anthony's Church, built as early as 1537, can still be identified.—(*See* Dr. Da Cunha's *Antiquities of Bassein.* Bombay, 1876.)

Here was concluded, in 1802, the important treaty by which the Peshwá agreed to maintain a British subsidiary force, thus virtually dissolving the Marhattá confederacy.

Bassein. — A District in Pegu Division, British Burma, lying between 15° 44′ 30″ and 17° 59′ 15″ N. lat., and between 94° 15′ and 95° 40′ 15″ E. long.; area, 6517 square miles; population in 1872, 322,689 souls. Bounded on the north by Henzada District lying east, and Sandoway west of the Arakan Hills; on the south and west by the Bay of Bengal; and on the east by Thon-Khwa and a network of creeks. The headquarters of the District are at Bassein town, situated on the river of the same name.

Physical Aspects.—Bassein District is in shape an irregular parallelogram, extending northwards from the Bay of Bengal, and divided into two very unequal parts by the Arakan Hills. The western portion forms a narrow mountainous strip; the eastern is a stretch of alluvial land traversed by three large branches of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), which flow nearly parallel to one another into the sea. Of this tract the northern and largest portion as far south as Ngapútaw is well watered and very fertile; the southern portion consists of cultivated plains and large wastes of forest, gradually merging into low marshy ground, cut up into numerous islands by the network of tidal creeks uniting the mouths of the Irawadi. The coast-line stretches from the mouth of the Khwa river in about lat. 17° 34′ N., and long. 94° 37′ E., for 110 miles in a south-westerly direction to Cape Negrais; thence it inclines south by east for 9 miles to Pagoda Point, the southern extremity of the Arakan Hills. In parts, the coast-line consists of a gently shelving sandy beach, backed by undulating forest land; beyond Cape Negrais, where the hills enter the sea abruptly, forming a bold and rugged escarpment, the coast is rocky. From Hmawdeng westwards stretches a flat beach bordered with grassy plains, which end in mangrove swamps, intersected in every direction by tidal inlets. The chief rivers are—the Pyamalaw, with its two mouths, the Pyamalaw and the Pyengthalú; the Rwe, with the small Daye-bhyú mouth; and the Bassein, with the Thekkay-thoung mouth. The Pyamalaw leaves the Kyúnpat at Shwe-loung, and flows for some distance north-west and west before it turns to the sea. The Rwe river is formed by the junction of several creeks. All these are tidal streams, and some are entirely dependent upon the Irawadi for their water supply. The BASSEIN river, though it leaves the Irawadi some miles above Henzada and is connected with it by many streamlets, receives much of its water from the eastern slopes of the Arakan Hills, and is the only mouth used by large sea-going vessels ascending as far as Bassein town. The whole country south of 17° N. lat., except to the west of the Arakan Toma hills, and in their immediate neighbourhood on the east, consists of groups of islands formed by innumerable creeks

and bifurcations, some of which are navigable by steamers, some only by canoes. The principal hills are the Arakan mountains, across which are several passes only practicable in dry weather. The most northern pass, which is entirely in this District, is the Bhawmí, from the junction of the Tsalú and Bhawmí streams to Thit-nan-kú on the Thien. The highest point is only 270 feet above the sea. Farther south there are two passes by the Kyoung-tha and Tsheng-ma rivers; the crest of the first is 381, and of the second 284, feet above sea level.

The character and resources of the forests are still unknown. There are large tracts of mangrove and evergreen forest. The chief timber trees are *pyeng-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis), *sha* (Acacia catechu), *toung-pien* (Artocarpus sp.), *thitka* (Quercus semiserrata). The quantity of teak found is small. A considerable area east of Ngapútaw on the Bassein river, and a tract of country stretching northward from Bassein town, consist of laterite beds, covered to some depth by sandy deposits. A remarkable patch of calcareous sandstone occurs on the west coast of the District; the nummulitic or eocene group of rocks is well developed. In the south these have been termed the 'Negrais' beds. In some places flaggy and massive sandstone abounds, in others, sections are exposed of highly altered shales and sandstones, and occasionally the sandstone is seen converted into a flinty rock. All these beds are internally silicified. These rocks have a peculiar greenish hue, which towards the north changes into a bluish tinge. Subordinate to the sandstone stratum an irregular bed of conglomerate occurs, but it forms a marked bed in one place only, viz. near Ywot-pa. It is here that the 'mud volcano' of the charts is situated; but it has no connection with volcanic action properly so called, and neither lava, ashes, nor volcanic rocks are seen about it. In appearance it is a low mound, and is now considered as the 'vent for a very feeble discharge of marsh gas.' In the southern portion of the Arakan range, limestone occurs in extensive masses. In some parts above this there is an intensely hard ferruginous bed of conglomerate, characterised by numerous quartz pebbles. Soapstone is found in the Arakan Hills, chiefly on their eastern slopes. Most of the lime used in the District is procured from a locality a few miles below Ngapú-taw on the Bassein river. The quantity is inexhaustible, the quality good, and access easy.

History.—Little is known of the early history of the District. Ptolemy, in his sketch of the hydrography of India beyond the Ganges, says: 'From the range of Mæandrus flow down all the rivers beyond Ganges, until you come to the river Besynga.' This Besynga has been identified with the Bassein branch of the Irawadi, and the Mons Mæandrus with Yoma-doung, the range forming the backbone of Arakan. In old Talaing histories the '32 cities of Bassein' are mentioned in 625 A.D. as forming part of the kingdom of Pegu. About

1250 A.D. the Talaing princess, Um-madan-dí, ascended the throne; but a few years later Bassein was conquered by the Burmese. In 1289 A.D., according to Talaing history, Bassein again passed to Pegu. When Razadhierit, the greatest monarch of the Talaing, became king (1383 A.D.), Louk-bya, Governor of Myoung-mya, proposed to assist the Burmese in conquering Pegu; and the acceptance of his offer led to incessant warfare between the two kingdoms. In 1686 the Governor of Madras determined to establish a settlement in Negrais, then considered a portion of Arakan; but the first expedition proved unsuccessful. In 1687, however, Negrais was taken possession of in the name of the East India Company, but no settlement was made there until 1753. At this time the war between the Burmese and Peguans, which ended in the complete subjugation of the latter, was at its climax. Both Burma and Pegu sought British aid, which was refused impartially; later on, it was urged that we should side with the Burmese, as the Talaing had succeeded in obtaining the assistance of our rivals the French, who then had a settlement at Syriam below Rangoon. The King of Burma sent ambassadors to Negrais, who were escorted from Bassein by Captain Baker, then in charge of the British factory in that town. Soon after this (1775), a mission was despatched to the Burmese King, in order to obtain a formal grant of Negrais and the site of the Bassein factory, as it was considered that the whole country had passed to the Burmese monarchy. Unfortunately, about this time the British ships near Rangoon had been forced to aid the Talaing; and the Burmese King could not forgive this treachery, as he considered it. The English authorities insisted on absolute neutrality, but their local agents were in consequence suspected by both sovereigns. In 1757, a cession of Negrais and of ground at Bassein was obtained in perpetuity, as it was thought. In 1759, the Negrais establishment was withdrawn, and only a few persons were left in charge of the island and of the Company's property. Captain Southey, their superintendent, landed October 5, 1759; and on the 7th, when all the Europeans were assembled to meet the Burmese authorities, they were treacherously attacked and murdered, only one making his escape. In 1760, a mission was sent to obtain redress, but it was of no avail, and the Burmese King absolutely prohibited our return to Negrais. From this date until the first Burmese war, the British Government took no further steps towards forming a settlement in the District. During that war, Bassein town was captured and retained until the evacuation of Pegu, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Yandabú. During the second Burmese war the town was again taken by our troops, and has remained in the possession of the British ever since. During the time of the annexation of Pegu, the whole of Bassein District was a prey to anarchy; the British troops were kept within the

limits of the seaport towns and frontier stations, and in the interior numerous bandit chiefs set up independent authority, claiming to be officers of the Burmese King deputed to regain the country. A kind of civil war began; in one instance animosity was carried so far against the English, that the villages on the banks of the Irawadi which had supplied our steamers with fuel were destroyed. The great object of the British at this crisis was to rid the country of these gangs, to afford protection to its inhabitants, and restore their confidence in British rule. At this time there were no local officers owning obedience to us. In January 1853, Captain Fytche, the Deputy Commissioner, succeeded in dispersing a force which had kept the whole country in the south and south-east in a state of terror. He first attacked this gang on Negrais island, and afterwards followed it up northwards into the Shweloung township, destroying its three chief stations. Later a rebel band, under Mengyí Moung Gnyún, the former governor of Bassein, was utterly routed, and its leader slain. By the beginning of March 1853, the lower tracts were freed from the large marauding parties which had hitherto occupied them, and only straggling bands of robbers remained. In January 1854 fresh disturbances broke out. Two men named Shwe Tú and Kyaw Zan Hla, aided by a Buddhist priest, assembled a number of desperate characters from the borders of the District, and succeeded in seizing the large towns of Dounggyí, Ngathaing-Khyoung, and Regyí. The outbreak was speedily crushed by the rapid and decisive action of Major Fytche, who with a small military force of Europeans and 400 Native troops, aided by detachments under Major Baker and Lieutenant Shuldham, completely defeated the insurgents, whose leaders were either killed or captured. From this time there has been no serious endeavour to expel the British, and the District has enjoyed comparative rest.

Population, etc.—By the Census of 1872, the population was returned at 322,689 souls. Classified as to race, there were—Burmese, 208,551; Karengs, 92,061; Talaings, 14,540; Shans, 1601; Arakanese, 1056; Hindus, including those of mixed parentage, 711; Muhammadans, 2649; Khyengs, 780; Chinese, 454; other races, Europeans, etc., 288. In 1875 the Shwe-loung and Pantanaw townships were separated from Bassein. The population in 1876, according to the Thú-gyí's rolls, was 302,858 souls, comprising—Burmese and Arakanese, 198,247; Karengs, 87,093; Talaings, 9435; Shans, 1785; Khyengs, 925; Hindus, 1264; Muhammadans, 2638; Chinese, 1033; other races, 438. Here, as elsewhere throughout the Province, except in Mergui, the males outnumber the females. In 1876 there were 157,142 of the former to 144,715 of the latter. This disproportion is caused by immigration from Madras, Chittagong, China, etc. The immigrants bring no wives with them, but marry Burmese women, whom they leave behind on their return to

their own country. In former years, the Talaings mustered strongly, but the conquest by the Burmese King, Aloungbhúra, and the cruelty exercised towards them by their rulers, whom they had irritated by siding with the English during the first Burmese war, drove many into exile, and more than decimated the number of those who could not escape. The Karengs in this District differ only from those living in the hills of Tenasserim by having adopted the Burmese mode of cultivation. The Shans are settlers from the north; many of the Muhammadans, and the majority of Hindus, are mere sojourners in quest of money to be spent in their own land. The Khyengs live chiefly in the hills to the north-west, the tribe stretching far away into Upper Burma and Arakan. (*See* ARAKAN HILL TRACTS.) The principal occupations of the inhabitants are agriculture, carried on in the large plains of the District, and fishing along the sea-coast and in the numerous ponds, rivers, and tidal creeks in the south.

The number of towns and villages in 1876 was 1455. The most important are — BASSEIN, the headquarters station, and one of the chief ports of the Province, on the Bassein river, 75 miles from the sea (population in 1876, 22,417); Lemyet-hna, lat. 17° 35′ N., long. 95° 13′ 30″ E., on the banks of the Bassein river (population in 1876, 4986); Myoung-mya, lat. 16° 35′ N., and long. 95° E., situated on the banks of the river of the same name (population in 1876, 1717); Ngapútaw, lat. 16° 32′ N., and long. 94° 46′ E., on an island of the same name in the Bassein river, built on the side of a low range of hills (population in 1876, 1010); and Regyí Pandaw, lat. 17° 19′ 30″ N., and long. 15° 10′ E., on a creek of the same name, composed of the once separate towns of Regyí and Pandaw, and the seat of an important rice trade (population in 1876, 3506),—it was here that the Talaing army made its last stand before its complete defeat by Aloungbhúra. Ngathaing-Khyoung, lat. 17° 22′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 8′ 30″ E., is on the Bassein river; its population in 1876 was 2737, chiefly engaged in an extensive rice trade with Bassein; for some years it was garrisoned by a detachment of Native Infantry from Bassein, but is now guarded by a police force. Kyúnpyaw, lat. 17° 17′ N., long. 95° 16′ E., on the Daga river at the southern entrance of the Regyí creek; had a population in 1876 of 2551, employed in agriculture, trading, and fishing.

Agriculture, etc.—In 1855-56, the area under cultivation was 134,520 acres; in 1864-65 this had risen to 186,129, and in 1874-75 to 305,902 acres. In 1876-77, when a considerable tract on the east had been cut off, the cultivated area was 275,840 acres, or $\frac{1}{11}$ of the total area. The area under different crops in 1876-77 was as follows:—Rice, 262,060 acres; oil-seeds, 16; sugar, 201; cotton, 209; tobacco, 66; betel leaf, 781; vegetables, fruit trees, etc., 31,279 acres. The staple product is rice, and the average out-turn reaches 14$\frac{3}{7}$ cwts. per acre. In 1876-77,

the gross produce was 187,183 tons, valued at £1,029,506. Sesamum and tobacco are cultivated to a small extent. The yield of cotton averages 83 lbs. per acre. The agricultural stock, notwithstanding the transfer of two large townships, has increased largely. In 1869-70, the number of cows, bulls, and bullocks was 33,746; of buffaloes, 78,108; sheep and goats, 1281; pigs, 23,464; carts, 14,074; ploughs, 23,253. By 1876-77, the number of cows, bulls, and bullocks had increased to 65,475; of buffaloes, to 93,753; of sheep and goats, to 2015; of pigs, to 26,098; of carts, to 26,480; ploughs had decreased to 21,174. The number of boats has increased from 12,623 to 12,857. The average size of a holding is about 15 acres—a larger area than is held farther north. Hired labourers are rarely employed; their wages vary from about 16s. with board to £1 without board. As a rule, proprietors cultivate their own land, and renting is not common. The produce of the District can easily be transported by the sea-water creeks, the natural means of communication, which also irrigate and fertilize the country. Annually, on the rise of the Irawadi, large tracts of country are flooded, and the crops are often destroyed. In order to protect the rice land small embankments were formerly raised by the inhabitants, but these were too slight and too much localized to be of any permanent benefit. Since 1865 large embankments have been, and still are being, made by the State along the banks of the Irawadi, and one along the left bank of the Bassein from its northern mouth is complete as far as Ngathaing-Khyoung.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal manufactures of the District are salt, *ngapee* or salt-fish, and pottery—the first two mainly on the sea-coast in the Ngapútaw and Myoung-mya townships, and the last in the Bassein, Myoung-mya, and Regyí townships. Several saline plains occur within a distance of 8 or 10 miles from the sea-coast, and in the alluvial delta; and wherever these are in the vicinity of creeks, salt is prepared by means of solar evaporation and boiling. The pots in which it is boiled contain about 4½ gallons of brine each, and at every evaporation yield about 7 lbs. of salt. The salt manufacture is carried on for about four months, and the average produce of one pot during the season is 1350 lbs. The salt is sold on the spot for the preparation of salt fish and *ngapee*. The expenditure during a season for a boiling place of 200 pots is about £188, and the value of the salt made, £250—net profit, £62. Several kinds of *ngapee* are manufactured, of which *dhameng* is the most important. It is made on the sea-coast, and consists of a mixture of all kinds of fish and prawns, which, as they are caught in the traps, are thrown *en masse* on to a raised platform made of bamboo, and left there for about eight hours for the water to drain off. By this time decomposition has generally set in; the whole mass is then thickly sprinkled with salt,

and crushed and mixed together by hand, when it is ready for market. About 4700 lbs. of salt are required for 100 baskets of *ngapee*. Large pots and other kinds of heavy glazed pottery are made at Thit-gnyo-gún, near Bassein town. In a single season—*i.e.*, from January to April—two men can turn out 1000 pots of sizes, generally sold to traders on the spot at prices varying from £12 to £13.

Commerce.—The trade of Bassein District has enormously increased since the British occupation, as the following figures (repeated in more detail in the article on BASSEIN TOWN) show:—Total value of exports from Bassein harbour in 1855-56, £52,544; imports, £24,300; tonnage of vessels cleared, 2847 tons. In 1865-66—value of exports, £289,965; imports, £32,876; tonnage, 42,163. In 1876-77—value of exports, £503,468; imports, £44,764; tonnage, 81,297 tons. Communication is carried on almost entirely by water, and the country requires few roads. In the dry season cart tracks lead from village to village, and during the rains a boat can pass almost everywhere. Total length of inland water communication, 387 miles. The postal communications are—(1) a monthly service by the British India Steam Navigation Company between Chittagong and Penang, the steamers calling at Akyab, Kyouk-hpyú, Sandoway, Bassein, etc.; (2) a service twice a week by the steamers of the Irawadi Flotilla Company between Rangoon and Bassein; (3) a service, maintained out of the District *dák* portion of the Five-per-cent. Cess Fund, three times a month between Bassein and Ngathaing-Khyoung. There is one newspaper published in the District, at the Bassein town press.

Revenue, etc.—The actual revenue of the District prior to its annexation cannot be accurately ascertained. From local records found in the various offices, it appears that the annual revenue furnished by Bassein, as it existed in Burmese times, was—(1) house and family tax (Burmese and Kareng), £12,273; (2) yoke of oxen, or rice land tax, £3598; (3) fisheries, £9203; (4) salt, £1338; (5) transit dues, £1838; total, £28,250. Adding two-thirds for the share of the local officers, the amount paid by the inhabitants was at least £47,080. In 1855-56, the first year in which the revenue returns can be depended upon, the amount realized was £61,791. This was derived from taxes on land, fisheries, salt, forest produce, port dues, excise, capitation fees, etc. In 1855-56, the area under cultivation (exclusive of *toungya*, or hill clearings), the land revenue, and the rate of taxation per acre were 134,520 acres, £21,222, and 3s. 1½d. respectively. In 1875-76, the number of acres under tillage rose to 264,320, the income to £43,732, and the average rent per acre to 3s. 3d. Under the Burmese, the total demand for the capitation tax was ordered annually by the governor of the District, the assessment per circle being left to the Akhwonwon, and the assessment per house to

the discretion of the Thú-gyí. Under English rule each married man pays 10s., and each bachelor between eighteen and sixty (except priests, cripples, etc.), 5s. In 1855-56, the yield of this tax was £19,465; in 1876-77, £30,530. In 1876-77, the amount realized by the fishery tax was £10,898. The proceeds of the salt tax are decreasing yearly owing to the importation of cheaper foreign salt. In 1855, the price per *maund* of 80 lbs. was 13 annas, or 1s. 7½d. per cwt.; in 1876-77 it was 1 rupee 6 annas, or 2s. 9d. per cwt. The excise revenue yielded in 1855-56, £5539; in 1876-77, £12,789. The gross Imperial and Provincial revenue in 1876-77 was £166,646, as compared with £107,189 in 1867-68; the expenditure in 1876-77, £19,673, as compared with £13,926 in 1867-68. The Local revenue raised in the District in 1876-77 over and above the Imperial and Provincial revenue, excluding the port and dispensary funds and the Municipal revenue of Bassein town, was £6005.

Administration.—On the annexation of Pegu, Bassein District was formed out of the Bassein governorship of Burmese times, but there was added to it a seaboard strip of country, a portion of Sandoway, which extended west of the Arakan Hills to about lat. 18° N. The northern part of this tract was afterwards reunited to Sandoway. In 1875, the Shwe-loung and Pantanaw townships, in the extreme east of the District, were taken away. Up to 1853, the country was in a very disturbed state, and the civil officers, aided occasionally by a few troops from the Bassein garrison, were continually engaged in dispersing large gangs of armed marauders. The Deputy-Commissioner was in consequence empowered to punish with death all persons convicted of complicity in rebellion, and a police force was raised of a total strength of 546 men. In 1861, the police battalion was disbanded; and a regular force for the whole Province, under an inspector-general and District superintendents, was organized. In 1876, this force in Bassein numbered 392 of all ranks, or 1 policeman to every 23 square miles and to every 898 of the population; total cost, £8577. The principal crime is *dakáití* or gang-robbery, now confined chiefly to the Shwe-loung township. Bassein District is divided into 8 townships, and these again into revenue circles—Regyí, 12; Tsam-bay-rún, 8; Thaboung, 14; Bassein, 8, including Bassein town; Ngapútaw, 11; Thí-Kweng, 10; Myoung-mya, 9. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy-Commissioner, Assistant-Commissioners, and subordinates. About 1855 the headquarters of the District were transferred from Bassein to Dalhousie, so called in honour of the Governor-General to whom was due the annexation of Pegu. Situated near the mouth of the Bassein river, and admirably adapted as a port of call, being placed at the natural outlet of a vast tract of fertile country, it was hoped that Dalhousie would become an important town. In 1856-57,

however, the whole site was submerged by a sudden rise of the sea consequent on a cyclone, and in the same year the headquarters were re-transferred to Bassein, the present station. The new District jail was completed in 1868 at a cost of £17,260; there is accommodation for 405 male and 16 female prisoners. In 1855, the daily average number of prisoners of all classes was 317. The average in 1876 was: convicted prisoners, 343 males, 3 females—total, 346; under trial, 5 males, 1 female—total, 6; debtors, excise prisoners, and revenue defaulters, 17: total of all classes, 365 males, 4 females—grand total, 369. The total cost to the State was £2328; the profits derived from jail labour were £1231. In 1860, a Kareng normal and industrial school was opened by the American Baptist missionaries, at which, in 1875-76, the average daily attendance of boys and girls was 160. The Baptist Mission have also established village schools, a normal school at Bassein, a school for Burmese, etc., all of which are aided by the State. In 1874, Government established a middle-class school. The number of pupils on March 31, 1876, was 144; average daily attendance, 117. At the cess school in Ngathaing-Khyoung the fees are 1s. per month for boys, and 6d. for girls. Primary education is in the hands of Buddhist monks, and the schools of those monks who will allow it are examined yearly.

Climate, etc.—The climate of Bassein is relaxing, owing to the situation of the District in the delta of the Irawadi, with the country around intersected by tidal creeks, the muddy banks of which are exposed during the greater part of the day. In 1876-77, the total rainfall was 102·31 inches. Cholera and fever are reported to be endemic, whilst bowel complaints, dropsy, and rheumatism are common. Small-pox is much spread by inoculation.

Bassein.—Township on the left bank of the Bassein river, in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Towards the north the ground is undulating, but the country to the south is flat, and highly cultivated with rice. The town of Bassein lies in the west centre. In 1876 the population numbered 17,695; the gross revenue was £5879.

Bassein.—Municipal town, headquarters station, and chief port of Bassein District; situated in the delta of the Irawadi, on both banks of the Bassein river. Lat. 16° 46′ N., long. 94° 48′ 10″ E.; population in 1876, 22,417. On the left bank of the river, in the Zhe-Khyoung quarter, is the Shwe Mú-htaw Pagoda. This now forms the centre of the English fort, and which also contains the court-houses, treasury, and police office. The other quarters of the town on the left bank are Athaygyí, Myothit, and Talaing-Khyoung. The small Theng-bhaw-gyeng suburb, containing the rice mills and store yards of the principal merchants, stands on the right bank. To the east of

Myothit stretches a plain covered with pagodas, monasteries, and colossal images in every stage of decay, where the feasts and religious assemblies of the inhabitants are held. The port has rapidly progressed under British rule. In 1855-56, the value of rice exported was £43,505, of timber £250, of all other exports £8789—total exports, £52,544; the value of all imports was £24,300, and the tonnage of vessels cleared, 2847 tons. In 1865-66, the value of rice exported was £285,246, of timber £352, of all other exports £4367—total exports, £289,965; the imports were estimated at £32,876, and the tonnage of vessels cleared was 42,163 tons. In 1876-77, the value of rice exported was £500,042, of timber £1144, of all other exports £2282—total exports, £503,468; the value of imports was £44,764, and the tonnage of vessels cleared, 81,297 tons. Rice forms the chief article of export, and is mainly sent to Europe. The quantity shipped in 1866-67 was 26,690 tons; in 1876-77, 104,516 tons. Small quantities of timber, cotton, tobacco, and oil-seeds are also exported. The chief imports are coal, salt, piece-goods, cotton stuffs, and crockery. Chinese junks bring small consignments of tea and silk, mainly for the use of the Chinese community. Native craft from the coast of Madras bring cocoa-nuts and other articles used by the Madrassees, who are employed largely in loading and unloading ships. The following description of the busy scene in the harbour is taken from the Blue Book on the trade of British India, 1872-73 to 1876-77 (published in 1878):—

'The rice season here resembles in its aspects the rice season elsewhere in Burma—creeks crowded with boats laden with paddy, mills at work from morning to night, the surface of the river and creeks covered inches thick with paddy husks, and shipping busily taking in the cleaned rice from the mills. These rice mills are a feature in the ports of Burma. There is nothing like them in continental India (except at Port Canning, and there the mills are a failure), where the rice is husked in the interior of the Districts by the family of the cultivator before it is sent to the market for disposal. In Burma the cultivator is too well-to-do to care about undertaking the trouble of husking the rice, and he leaves that to be done by the European purchaser at the port of shipment. The mills are worked by powerful machinery moved by steam; and the coal which is required by them forms the main article of import from foreign countries into Akyab and Bassein, the latter port importing also a certain quantity of salt. Bassein is supplied with all her other imports from Rangoon in river steamers, which ply twice a week through the narrow tidal creeks, lined with mangrove jungle, which form the Burmese Sundarbans between Rangoon and Bassein. These steamers belong to the Irawadi Flotilla Company, and are specially constructed for the service. Light as they

are in draught, in the dry weather they often stick fast in the mud for hours together. The steamers do a very large trade in the carriage of passengers and cargo between Rangoon and Bassein, but no record of the actual value of the trade has as yet been attempted.'

Within the last few years telegraphic communication has been established between Bassein and Rangoon, and it is proposed to extend the line to the mouth of the river, where ships call for orders. In 1876-77, the municipal revenue of the town was £9778. Bassein was utterly depopulated in the time of Aloungbhúra (Alompra), and no trustworthy records of its early history exist. It is said to have been founded in 1249 A.D. by Um-ma-dan-di, a Talaing princess. From the natural advantages of its site, it has always been a harbour of considerable importance, and is alluded to as 'Cosmin' by Ralph Fitch and other travellers, who found Rangoon a small village. During the first Burmese war, the occupation of the town by the British was unopposed, the Burmese governor having set fire to it and retreated to Le-myet-hna. The population gradually returned, and the place was not abandoned till the conclusion of war, when the troops were withdrawn. During the second Burmese war, Bassein was finally taken by assault. The town has a charitable dispensary and two hospitals, one for Europeans and one for natives. A new hospital is now being built. The total number of patients treated in 1876 was 3461, of whom 264, including 10 Europeans, were in-patients.

Bassein.—River in Pegu Division, British Burma; the most westerly of the main channels by which the Irawadi reaches the sea. Its northern entrance, about 9 miles above Henzada town, is partially closed by a sand-bar. Flowing south-west, the Daga leaves it 3 miles from the main stream of the Irawadi, to rejoin it again a few miles farther on. After their reunion the Panmawadi and other large tidal creeks connect the Bassein by innumerable smaller channels with the other mouths of the Irawadi, and after a tortuous course of 200 miles, it falls into the Bay of Bengal at Pagoda Point. The banks of the river are for the most part low, muddy, and covered with jungle; in some portions of its course the country is hilly, and the river is studded with rocks and islands. During the rains, the Bassein is navigable throughout. Haing-gyí, or Negrais Island, lies at its mouth. Two channels, one on each side of it, lead into the river; the western forms a good harbour, the eastern is rendered dangerous by a reef of rocks projecting from Púrian nearly to Diamond Island, facing the mouth of the river; 75 miles up the river is BASSEIN TOWN, the headquarters of the District of the same name.

Bastar.—Feudatory State attached to Upper Godávari District, Central Provinces, lying between 17° 46′ and 20° 37′ N. lat., and 80° 18′ and 82° 21′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Raipur District; on

the south by Sironchá; on the east by the Bendrá Nawágarh chiefship, under Raipur and the Jeypore State; and on the west by the Ahíri chiefship. Population in 1872, 78,856; area, 13,062 square miles. The Rájá resides at Jagdalpur, which is also the principal town.

The extreme length of Bastar is about 170 miles, its breadth about 120 miles. In the centre and north-west, the country is very mountainous; on the east extends a tableland nearly 2000 feet above sea level, yielding rich crops wherever it is cultivated; while ranges of sandstone hills diversify the parts in the south. These ranges all run north-west and south-east. As each ends, generally in a steep declivity, another begins from 5 to 15 miles to the south, and runs in a parallel direction, till in like manner a third line succeeds. Few springs rise in these hills; great boulders of vitrified sandstone strew their surface, and glitter in the sun with a pinkish hue. Another range, known as the Belá Dílá, from a particular elevation near Dantiwára resembling a bullock's hump, crosses the centre of the dependency, increasing in height as it runs due southward, till it culminates in two lofty peaks, called Nandiráj and Pitur Rání, between 3000 and 4000 feet above sea level. The soil through the greater part of Bastar consists of a light clay with an admixture of sand, well adapted to the raising of rice, but requiring a good supply of water. The Indravati, the Sabári, and the Tál or Tálper, the only important rivers, all fall into the Godávari. Iron ore of good quality is reported to abound, but it is little worked, as the demand is insignificant.

Before 1872, the most exaggerated ideas were entertained respecting the population of Bastar. The Census of that year, though confessedly most imperfect, forms the only basis we have for a detailed examination of the population. It returned a total of 78,856 persons on an area of 13,062 square miles, residing in 1659 villages or townships, and 41,600 houses; persons per square mile, 6·04; villages per square mile, 0·13; houses per square mile, 3·18; persons per village, 47·53; persons per house, 1·89; number of males, 40,745—of females, 38,111. Ethnical division—Aboriginal tribes, 48,092; Hindus, 29,060; Muhammadans, 1704. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes is the Gonds (45,713), the remainder consisting almost entirely of Bhíls. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans number 466; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Dhers or Mhars (4977), Malís or Maráis (1339), Kunbís (1518), Ahírs or Gaulis (1115), and Kalars (1465), and other cultivating or inferior castes. In 1872 there were no native Christians. The Bráhmans for the most part dwell in and around Jagdalpur. They all eat fish, and will drink water from the hands of the Gáhiras, or cowherds. The Gadwás or Gadbás, who are found towards the east, subsist by cultivation and by labour. A Gadwá woman dresses in a singular fashion; taking a cloth, 3 feet by 6, made from the bark of

the *karing* tree, with broad horizontal bands of red, yellow, and blue, she passes it round her waist, brings it across the shoulder, and then fastens it down before the bosom. Next she secures this cloth with a girdle composed of not less than 40 separate cords about 20 inches long, with the ends bound together and worn in front. She crowns her hair with a chaplet of the large white seeds of the *kusa* grass, often twisted with strings of beads; large earrings of brass wire hang from the upper cartilage of each ear down to the shoulder, while an earring resembling a brass button decorates the lobe of the ear. On festivals both men and women dance to a fife and a drum, and sometimes a man and a woman will step out of the crowd and sing alternately impromptu verses of uncouth raillery. It is in Bastar that the Gonds may be studied to most advantage. A detailed account of them will be found under the head CENTRAL PROVINCES.

Throughout the State, Danteswári or Máulí (who is identified with Bhawání or Kálí), and Mátá Deví, are objects of universal worship. The higher castes also adore the well-known deities of the Hindu Pantheon. Danteswári, however, must be regarded as the tutelary divinity of the Rájás, and generally of the Bastar dependency. It was under her guardianship that the reigning family left Hindustán and dwelt at Warangul; and when the Muhammadans drove them out of the kingdom of Telingána, it was she who directed and accompanied their flight as far as Dantiwára, where she took up her abode. Her temple stands at the confluence of the Sankháni and Dankáni rivers, and within the temple enclosure the hereditary Pujarí has his residence. Here there is reason to believe that *meriah* (human) sacrifices were once practised; but since 1842 a guard has been placed over the temple, and the Rájá held personally responsible. At present most travellers offer a goat to the goddess when they pass her shrine. Some, too, consult her by placing flowers upon the head of her image. As the flowers fall to the right or the left, so her response is deemed favourable or the reverse.

Jagdalpur is the only town containing upwards of 1000 inhabitants, and but three other places have a population exceeding 500; 26 villages contain from 200 to 500 inhabitants, and 1629 have fewer than 200.

Of the total area of 13,062 square miles, only 1000 are cultivated; of the portion lying waste, two-thirds are returned as cultivable. Rice constitutes the most important crop in Bastar; but oil-seeds, dyes, *ral*, *dammar*, *kosa*, lac, galls, and fibres are also produced. No cotton, and but a very small quantity of wheat and gram, are grown. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 67 proprietors, of whom 61 were classified as 'inferior;' the tenants, all of whom are tenants-at-will, numbered 21,608; the number of herdsmen amounted only to 539,—nevertheless

one of the most important productions of Bastar consists of its horns and hides. The *gur*, wax, and honey must also be mentioned.

The State is almost destitute of manufactures. The weavers, who in 1872 numbered 852, make a coarse kind of cloth; and a caste called Ghásiás busy themselves with working up brass pots out of the fragments of old ones. All petty sales are effected by barter, or by *kaurís* or shells when procurable. In 1870, 20 *kaurís* (cowries) made a *borí*, and 12 *borís* a *dugání*, and 12 *duganís* were worth one rupee. The Census of 1872 returned 263 shopmen; but the general system is for the Rájá to keep up granaries and storehouses, often receiving grain in part payment of the land tax, and retailing it with the other necessaries of life to his own establishments and travellers. Iron ore of good quality abounds on the Belá Dílá, and in the valley of the river Jorívág, but in consequence of the small demand is hardly ever worked. Salt, piece-goods, spices, and opium are imported from the coast by way of Jeypore, Sunkam, and Kaller; grain, wheat, and paper come from Raipur; and in the western parts, cloth, tobacco, and opium arrive from the Nizám's Dominions. But though the situation of the dependency is favourable for traffic, and the configuration of the country and the nature of the soil would facilitate the construction of highways, not a single made road exists in Bastar. As soon, however, as the navigation of the Godávari is opened up, the Baryára line from the south of Raipur will assume considerable importance, passing as it does through a portion of Bastar, and thence through the Ahírí chiefship and the Sironchá *táluk* to a point where it branches into two lines, running respectively to the large stations on the south-east coast and to Hyderabad. By this route, wheat is already exported in large quantities from Chhattisgarh. The dependency has no navigable river.

The estimated gross revenue of Bastar amounted, in 1877, to £9213, and the tribute to £305. No transit duties are imposed. The Rájá's military force consisted of 4 gunners, 12 horsemen, 50 sepoys, and 400 retainers armed with swords, and 3 small cannon. Rájá Bháirau Deo claims to be a Rájput. The family follow primogeniture, but have no *sanad* authorizing adoption. In 1877, the Rájá's heir was his nephew. Education has not reached a high standard in the dependency. In 1872, only 3 children not exceeding 12, and only 26 aged from 12 to 20 years, were able to read and write, or were under instruction. Of those above 20 years, 248 could read and write; all these persons were males.

The chief cause of mortality in Bastar is fever, which prevails especially from September to November, commonly accompanied with dysentery and diarrhœa. At rare intervals cholera appears, but seldom extends beyond the larger villages on the more frequented routes. On the other hand, small-pox is common, and the dread it inspires appears

from the numerous temples dedicated to Mátá Deví; the patient, into whose body the goddess is deemed to have entered, is treated with scrupulous regard. As soon as the disease shows itself, his feet are washed with cow's milk, and carefully wiped upon the head of his nearest relative; Mátá Deví is then prayed to take under her special protection the family whom she has honoured with a visit; the patient is placed upon a bed of fresh rice-straw, with a screen around him; his friends constantly repair to the temple of Mátá Deví, and anoint her image with ground sandal-wood and water, with which they then sprinkle the house where the patient lies, and sign his forehead; his diet consists of fruit and cooling food and drink, but no medicines are administered. Vaccination is unknown; inoculation, however, is practised to some extent. Rheumatism affects many of the inhabitants, and hydrocele is exceedingly common.

Basti.—A British District of the Benares Division, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, lying between 26° 24′ 45″ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 82° 17′ and 83° 20′ E. long.; area, 2789 square miles; population in 1872, 1,473,029, or 528 to the square mile.

Physical Aspects.—Basti is a sub-montane tract lying between the Nepál Hills and the Gogra (Ghágra) river, and presents the flat, marshy aspect typical of *tarái* land. The territory of Nepál bounds it on the north, Oudh on the south and west, and Gorakhpúr District of the North-Western Provinces on the east. It has a mean height of only 326 feet above sea level, and no natural elevations of any description diversify its surface. Numerous rivers and lakes keep the soil charged with moisture; and in the rainy season every depression fills, forming a temporary lake, till dried up by the sun. The general line of drainage is to the south-east. At one time, tree jungle covered a large proportion of the District; but during the last forty years, 170 square miles of waste land, granted to Europeans, have been cleared and brought under cultivation. There are no ravines, and but little *úsar* (saltpetre) land, so that of the whole area, two-thirds, or 1,174,200 acres, are actually productive; and of the other third, 328,320 acres are cultivable, though not yet under the plough. No waste land now remains at the disposal of Government.

The rivers Rápti and Koána divide the District into three natural belts. The northern belt, lying between the Rápti and the hills, is pure *tarái* (sub-montane) land, reclaimed from the forests and marshes that originally covered it. Even now, however, it is so waterlogged that only rice will flourish. Its breadth is about 10 miles throughout. The middle belt, from 12 to 20 miles broad, lies between the Rápti and the Koána; and being drained by them, is less marshy, and suitable therefore to wheat and other cereals. The southern belt, lying

between the Koána and the Gogra, is much drier, artificial irrigation being in parts required for the ordinary cereals. It is from 12 to 28 miles in breadth, making the total breadth of the District from about 30 to 50 miles. The total length is 68 miles. The chief rivers are—the Rápti, with its tributaries the Arrah, Bánganga, and Masdih; the Ami; the Koána; and the Gogra. The last forms throughout the southern boundary of the District, separating it from Fyzabad. It is a river of great volume, in places from 2 to 3 miles in width, and, owing to the force of its current and the softness of the soil, very destructive by its encroachments on the adjoining land. The largest of the lakes are the Bakhirá or Badanah, 5 miles by 2, and perennial; the Pathra, 3 miles by 2; the Chaur and the Chandu Táls. They all abound in water-fowl, and for the sport they afford, the Rájá of Bánsi preserves the Pathra and Chaur. In its natural productions Basti has nothing worthy of special note. The only mineral found is *kankar* (an imperfect limestone), used for road-mending; in the river beds shells are found in sufficient quantities for the manufacture of lime. The District is well wooded, the trees being those common to the North-Western Provinces generally. The mammals are insignificant, the larger carnivora and the deer tribes being unrepresented. Birds, especially water-fowl, are exceedingly abundant, and of countless species. Fish abound in all the rivers and lakes, and form an important item in the local food supply.

History.—Basti has no history of its own. Until 1801 it remained uneventfully a jungle-grown and outlying tract of the Sirkár of Gorakhpur, in the Subah of Oudh; and from the cession to 1865 it was part of the British District of Gorakhpur. Its early history, therefore, belongs to Oudh, its later to GORAKHPUR, and since 1865 no events of any public importance have marked its administration.

Population. — The total number of the inhabitants in 1872 was 1,473,029, inhabiting 248,268 houses, grouped into 6911 villages. This population, compared with the results of the Census of 1865, shows an increase of 3·9 per cent. during the preceding seven years; and as compared with that of 1853, an increase of 201,556 souls, or 15·8 per cent. during the nineteen years ending with 1872. Of the total, 784,691 were males and 688,303 females, disclosing an increase since 1853 of 18 per cent. on the male, and 13 per cent. on the female population. The area of the District being 2789 square miles, the above figures give 528 persons and 2·4 villages to the square mile; with 213 inhabitants to each village, and 5·9 souls to each household. Classified according to religion and sex, there were (in 1872), 1,247,201 Hindus and 225,784 Muhammadans; the proportion of Hindus to Muhammadans being 5·5 to 1. Classified according to occupations, 365,542 of the male population above 15 years of age

were agricultural, 34,988 were industrial, 11,230 commercial, 21,913 domestic, 5230 professional, and 37,296 'indefinite'—giving, therefore, 467,199 as the total number of males over 15 years of age. The number of Bráhmans was 173,056, and of Kshattriyas 44,247—the higher castes therefore aggregating 217,303, or 13 per cent. of the total population; the Banias numbered 44,757, and the Káyasths 18,581; of Ahírs there were 158,184, of Chamárs 205,658, of Kurmís 113,154—the three lowest castes aggregating, therefore, 476,996, or 33 per cent. of the whole. The villages and towns in the District in 1872 were 6911 in number, and of these 4408 contained fewer than 200 inhabitants, 2073 under 500, 340 under 1000, 66 under 2000, 10 under 3000, 12 under 5000, and 2 under 10,000. The total number of villages in 1853 was 6578, and the increase during the nineteen years ending with 1872, therefore, was 6·5 per cent.

There are no large towns in the District. BASTI with a population of 5087, and MENDHAWAL with 8124 inhabitants, are the only two having more than 5000 inhabitants. Mendháwal has a municipal revenue of £214; incidence of taxation, 6½d. per head (1876). The vast bulk of the total population is rural, being composed of the agricultural classes typical of the North-Western Provinces, and scattered uniformly over the District. In 1853, there were 457 persons per square mile; in 1865, 506; in 1872, 528: the density of population therefore increased by 10·7 per cent. in the first period of twelve years, or ·89 per cent. per annum; it increased by 22 during the second period of seven years, or by 4·3 per cent., or ·6 per cent. per annum; and by 71, or 15·5 per cent., or ·82 per cent. per annum, in the whole period of nineteen years.

There are no organized trades-unions in the European sense of the word, but the influential caste *pancháyats*, or deliberative assemblies, answer a similar purpose, acting, however, in a much wider field than the ordinary craft leagues in the west of India. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other castes, regulate the customs of their trades by this system.

Agriculture.—The area of Basti is almost entirely under cultivation. In the north, the great expanse of alluvial land, still in parts submerged for half the year, grows rice luxuriantly, and over the rest of the District all the cereals common to these Provinces are cultivated. The agricultural population numbers 1,161,384, or three-fourths of the total population, and the area under cultivation aggregates 1,174,200 acres, or 75 per cent. of the total acreage. The soil is of three kinds, *dumat* (loam), *bhar* or *bálua* (light, sandy soil), and *matiár* (clay),—drier in the southern than in the middle belt, and in the middle than in the northern. There are two harvests, the *kharíf* or autumn crop, and the *rabi*. The *kharíf* crops are sown in June, as soon as the first rain has

fallen, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice, the *kharíf* crops include *bájra, joár, mot*, etc. The *rabi* crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; they consist of wheat, barley, oats, vetch, and peas, and *dál* or *arhar*.

From the minute subdivision of the land, and the absence of large towns, the population maintains its average density of 528 to the square mile throughout the District, and over more than two-thirds of the villages the average of inhabitants is under 200. Of the houses, 99 per cent. are built of mud, and the average value of an ordinary agriculturist's personal effects is 10s. His annual expenditure is about £9, 7s. Rice and the cheaper grains form the staple of food, with, in some places, fish. As the cold is never severe, clothing and shelter do not cost so much as in many other Districts. Among Hindus the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the first class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £90 to £180; (2) for those in the second class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £20 to £60; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns the cost would be rather more, as their habits are more expensive.

The price of bullocks for agriculture ranges from £1 to £4, of buffaloes from 14s. to £3, and of cows from 10s. to £5. The rates of interest at present (1877) in force are—in small transactions, on the security of personal effects, from 10 to 12 per cent.; and on personal security only, from 16 to 37 per cent.: in large transactions, on the security of valuables, from 6 to 12 per cent.; on personal security (banker lending to banker), from 6 to 9 per cent.; and on the security of land, from 9 to 18 per cent. The rates of wages are as follows:—Coolies and unskilled town labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. a day; agricultural labourers, 2¼d. to 3d. a day; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. a day. Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men. The prices of the chief food grains in 1876 averaged as follows:—Wheat, 26 lbs. for 1s.; rice, 15 lbs.; and *dál*, 26 lbs. Prices have been rather less affected in this District than in others more centrally situated, and nearer the main line of railway; but even in Basti they are rising steadily.

Land Tenures.—None of the District is permanently settled. The tenures of land are the usual *zamíndárí, pattídárí*, and *bhayachára*. In the first case the whole estate belongs to several owners in joint occupation, and is undivided. In the second, the estate has been divided into shares, which are separately held by their several owners; an imperfect form of *pattídárí* is very frequent, in which both

sets of conditions exist in the same estate. In the third case, though the estate may be virtually either *zamíndárí* or *pattídárí*, the rights of ownership are determined, not by the several ancestral shares of the coparceners, but by custom or possession.

Natural Calamities.—The famines experienced in Basti District up to 1865, the year of its establishment as a separate Collectorate, will be described in the article on GORAKHPUR. Since 1865 there has been one year of slight scarcity (1868-69), and one of severe scarcity, amounting almost to famine (1873-74). In both years the rainfall was deficient, in the latter so seriously as to cause a failure of both the autumn and spring crops, and relief works were in operation till May 1874.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly with Fyzabad and Azamgarh, consisting to a great extent in the exchange of the cotton, cotton stuffs, and brass of Cawnpore and the Doáb Districts for the drugs, iron, copper, timber, and forest produce of Nepál. There are no marts of any importance, and Mendháwal, in the east of the District, is the only place worthy of the name of a trading town. Basti itself produces sugar, indigo, hides, saltpetre, charcoal, and coarse cloths; it imports cotton, timber, drugs, and iron. The spirit distilled from the petals of the *mahua* tree forms a special item of local manufacture and consumption. The only fairs of importance are those held at Maghar, Katesarnáth, and Bhari. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs for 40 miles along the southern border of the District; and from Fyzabad and Akbarpar, two stations on this portion of the line, good roads run into the District. The other important roads are those from Basti into Nepál *viâ* Bánsi, to Singarjot *viâ* Bhánpur, and to Mendháwal. There are 26 post offices in the District, but no telegraph office. Ferries cross the Rápti at Domáriaganj. The rivers Ami, Koána, and Gogra are all bridged, the last at two points, Ajodhia *ghát* and Tánda *ghát*.

Administration.—For the purposes of revenue collection, the District is divided into five *tahsílís*, viz. Domáriaganj, Bánsi, Haraia, Basti, and Khalilabad. The land revenue yielded in 1871-72, under the revised settlement concluded in that year, £133,097, being an increase during the nineteen years preceding of £45,230, or 51·5 per cent. The District local funds amounted in 1875 to £23,800. The total revenue raised in 1876 was £155,800, or (on the population of that year, 1,531,914) at the rate of 2·03 shillings per head. The latest Settlement of the District was commenced in 1859, and concluded in 1871. In revenue and police matters, Basti is controlled by the Commissioner of the Benares Division. The District staff consists of a magistrate and collector, who has generally a joint magistrate, an assistant magistrate, and a deputy magistrate under him. Of these, the magis-

trate, joint, assistant, and special magistrate are Europeans, and the rest natives. There are also a superintendent of police, a sub-deputy opium agent and his assistant, and a civil surgeon. The judge of Gorakhpúr presides over the civil administration; he has also criminal appellate powers. Under him, the sub-judge of Gorakhpúr and 2 *munsífs* or primary native civil courts—one at Basti, the other at Bánsi—have civil jurisdiction over the District. The number of revenue and criminal cases decided by the District staff was 1694 and 826 respectively. The police force has a total strength of 438, being at the rate of 1 man to every 6·65 square miles and to every 3363 of the population. It is maintained at an annual cost of £6416, being equal to £2, 2s. per square mile, or 1d. per head of the population. In 1871 there were 2000 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen, or 1 to every 700 inhabitants. The District jail at Basti contained in 1875 a daily average of 403 prisoners—393 males and 15 females. The annual jail mortality averaged 1·96 per cent.

Education is carried on by 240 schools, or 1 school to every 11·62 square miles, with a total average attendance of 6547 scholars, or ·44 per cent. on the total population. The total cost of the 5 *tahsílí* schools, with an attendance of 505, was £157, or 8s. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The District is on the whole an unhealthy one, for the excessive atmospheric humidity and the defective drainage combine to make fevers prevalent. The average annual rainfall at Basti town from 1864 to 1871 was 46·05 inches, the maximum being 58·4 in 1871, and the minimum 32·6 inches in 1868. The northern portion of the District, being immediately under the hills, experiences heavier fall. The extreme ranges of temperature on record are from 71° in January to 105° in May 1871, and from 42° in January to 78° in June 1872. In normal years the heat of summer is never very intense, nor the cold of the winter months severe, the dampness of the air tempering both extremes.

The total number of deaths reported in 1875 was 20,022, or 13·59 per thousand, the mean ratio per thousand for the six years previous being 13·52. There are 4 dispensaries—at Basti, Birdpúr, Bánsi, and Mendháwal; and the patients admitted during 1875 numbered 13,819. The total receipts were £724, and the establishment charges £342. During the same year nearly 30,000 vaccine operations were performed.

Basti. — *Tahsíl* of Basti District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 549 square miles, of which 348 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 313,327; land revenue, £28,407; total revenue, £31,194; rental paid by cultivators, £60,446; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 7⅝d.

Basti. — Administrative headquarters of Basti District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 48′ 30″ N., long. 82° 48′ 10″ E.; area, 127 acres; pop. (1872), 5087 souls. Lies on the river Koána, 40 miles distant from Fyzabad, and 43 miles from Gorakhpúr. The town has

no commercial importance, and is only noticeable as the District capital. Jail, post office, dispensary, Government offices, *tahsíli* school; bridge across the river Koána.

Basti Shekh.—The most important suburb of Jullundur (Jalandhar) town, Jullundur District, Punjab. Pop. 8000. Founded 1617 A.D. by Shekh Darvesh.

Basurhát.—Subdivision of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, lying between lat. 21° 30′ 45″ and 22° 54′ N., and between long. 88° 36′ and 89° 9′ 15″ E.; area, 352 square miles; number of villages, 473; houses, 51,603; pop. (1872), 268,146, comprising 136,993 Hindus (51·1 per cent. of population), 130,982 Muhammadans, and 171 Christians and others; average density of population, 762 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·34; houses per square mile, 147; persons per village, 567; persons per house, 5·2. The Subdivision consists of the *thánás* (police circles) of Kalingá, Basurhát Haruá, and Husainabad. In 1870-71 it contained 1 magisterial court, and a total police of 748 men, including village watch. The total cost of separate Subdivisional administration was returned in that year at £6292.

Basurhát.—Headquarters town of the Subdivision of the same name, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and a municipality. Lat. 22° 40′ N., long. 88° 53′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 12,105, of whom 6845 are Hindus, 5259 Muhammadans and Christians; number of males 5900, females 6205; number of houses, 2100; persons per house, 5·7; municipal income in 1872, £340; incidence of municipal taxation, 6¾d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Basva Patna.—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 12′ 5″ N., long. 75° 50′ 55″ E.; pop. (1871), 1122. The residence of the founder of the Tarikere family of *poligars*, in the 16th century. Haidar Alí razed the fortifications, and the town was sacked by the Marhattás in 1791.

Batála.—*Tahsíl* of Gurdáspur District, Punjab.

Batála.—Municipal town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 31° 48′ 33″ N., long. 75° 14′ 3″ E.; pop. (1868), 26,680 souls, comprising 9726 Hindus, 15,710 Muhammadans, 197 Síkhs, 14 Christians, and 1033 'others.' Lies on main road from Amritsar to Gurdáspur and Pathánkot; distant 24 miles from Amritsar, and 20 miles from Gurdáspur. Founded about the year 1465, during the reign of Bahlal Lodi, by Rái Rám Deo, a Bhatti Rájput, on a piece of land granted by Tátar Khán, Governor of Lahore. Akbar gave it in *jágír* to Shamsher Khán, his foster-brother, who greatly improved and beautified the town, and built without it a magnificent tank, which still exists in perfect repair. Under the Síkh commonwealth, Batála was held first by the Rámgarhias, and after their expulsion by the Kanhya

confederacy. On their return from exile, the Rámgarhia chiefs again recovered the town, and retained it till the rise of Ranjít Sinh. After the annexation of the Punjab, Batála was made headquarters of a District, subsequently transferred to Gurdáspur. Considerable trade, estimated at an annual value of £10,000; manufactures of cotton, silk, and leather goods; court-house, police station, *sarái, sadr* distillery, school-house, post office, dispensary, two good tanks, massive tomb of Shamsher Khán; handsome building, known as the Anarkalli, erected by Sher Sinh, son of Ranjít Sinh who held Batála in *jágír;* conspicuous Hindu temple. Central portion of town is raised to some height above surrounding level, with well-paved streets, good drainage, and substantial brick-built houses; but suburbs consist of squalid mud huts, occupied by Gujar shepherds and low-caste weavers, where filth accumulates to the great detriment of the general health. Municipal income in 1875-76, £1728, or 1s. 3½d. per head of population (26,897) within municipal limits.

Batali.—Frontier village of the Parla Kimidi Estate, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Ceded to the Kimidi Estate by the Jeypore Rájái as a reward to the chief of the former for betraying the owner of Batal, to the Rájá, by whom he was put to death.—*See* MERANGI.

Batesar.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the right bank of the Jumna, and distant 35 miles south-east of Agra. Lat. 26° 56′ 6″ N., long. 78° 35′ 7″ E. Great commercial fair on last day of Kártik, attracts 150,000 persons. Pilgrims bathe in the Jumna. From 4000 to 7000 horses exposed for sale, besides 3000 camels and 10,000 cattle. Sales take place for two or three days before and after the religious festival. Horses come chiefly from Punjab and Upper Doáb, but some from Kábal and Rájputána. Purchased, for cavalry, by British regiments and native States, also by police and private persons. In 1871, the shops and booths erected for the fair numbered 1688.

Batkágarh.—Chiefship in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; north of Chhindwára, consisting of 81 villages, of which 65 were inhabited in 1870. Lat. 22° 35′ N., long. 78° 54′ 15″ E. The *zamíndár*, who is a Gond, receives from Government in commutation of former rights a yearly allowance of £96, less a quit-rent of £2.

Battlagundu.—*See* VALLILAKANDU.

Bauliári.—Seaport on the creek of the same name, in the Dhandhuká Subdivision of Ahmedabad District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 4′ 30″ N., long. 72° 10′ 30″ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1871-72 —exports, £29,579; imports, £2655.

Baupur.—Cantonment, Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* BERHAMPORE.

Baura (*Bávada, Asnult*).—State feudatory to the Kolhápur Principality, within the British Political Agency of Kolhápur and Southern

Marhattá country, Bombay, lying between 16° 24′ 45″ and 16° 43′ 45″ N. lat., and between 73° 51′ 45″ and 74° 8′ 30″ E. long. Excluding certain villages situated below the Western Gháts, the State is bounded north, east, and south by the lands of Panhálá, Karvir, and Bhudhargarh in Kolhápur, and west by the Gháts. Estimated area, 83 square miles; pop. (1872), 43,439; gross revenue, £7916. The land is hilly and well wooded, and the soil generally red. In addition to the local rainfall, which is seldom deficient, four streams pass through the country above the Gháts, and two others water the villages lying at the foot of the hills. For purposes of irrigation, the water both of wells and rivers is raised in the upland tract by the rope and leather bag, and in the low-lying villages by the Persian wheel. From the strong damp wind and excessive wet of the rainy season (June to October), the climate of Baura is unhealthy, the prevailing disease being dysentery. The chief articles of production are rice, and the usual varieties of grain grown in the Deccan. The only water communication is from the port of Vijayadurg to the village of Pomburle. A cart-road runs from Baura to Kolhápur, continued by a bridle-path down the Gháts, and so on to Vijayadurg. There are 7 schools with 267 pupils. The present (1875) chief is a minor of sixteen years of age; he is a Hindu of the Bhadanekar family of Bráhmans; his name is Mádhava Ráo Moreshwar, and his title Panth Amátya of Baura. At present he attends the Rájárám high school at Kolhápur, and is assisted in his studies by a tutor. The late chief died on the 9th May 1867, and as he left no heirs, Mádhava Ráo was adopted on the 2d April 1868. A yearly tribute of £342 is paid to the Kolhápur State. Succession follows the rule of primogeniture, but there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. The adoption of the present chief was recognised by the paramount power as a special case.

Baura.—Chief town in the State of the same name; 26 miles south-east of Kolhápur. Lat. 16° 32′ 37″ N., long. 73° 51′ 27″ E.

Baurgarh.—Hill in Jubbulpore (Jabalpur) District, Central Provinces; south-west of Jubbulpore, rising about 500 feet above the valley; formed of schistose quartzite. Lat. 23° 1′ 30″ N., long. 79° 40′ E. A narrow gorge separates it from the general range of trap hills. Coal is found in the neighbourhood.

Baurgarh.—An isolated granitoid hill in Betúl District, Central Provinces; about 25 miles north-west of Betúl. Lat. 22° 11′ 33″ N., long. 77° 50′ 30″ E. Scarped on all sides but one, and crowned by a ruined fort.

Bausí (*Baunsí, Bowsee*).—Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated near the base of MANDAR HILL. Lat. 24° 50′ N., long. 78° 4′ E. The numerous buildings, tanks, large wells, and stone figures, found for a mile or two round the base of the sacred hill, show that a great city must once have stood here. The people of the neighbourhood

say that it contained 52 markets, 53 streets, and 88 tanks. According to local tradition, on the night of the Dewáli festival a large building (the ruins of which still exist, and the walls of which contain an immense number of square holes, evidently intended to hold *chirághs*, or small native lamps) was illuminated by a hundred thousand of these lights, each householder being allowed to supply only one. How or when the city fell into ruin is not known, though popular tradition ascribes its destruction to Kálá Pahár. A Sanskrit inscription on a stone triumphal arch seems to show that the city was in existence less than 300 years ago. After the destruction of the temple of Madhusúdan on Mandar Hill, the image of the god was brought to Bausí, where it now remains. Once a year, on the Paus-Sankrántí day, the image is carried from Bausí to the foot of the hill, and is swung on the triumphal arch above referred to. From 30,000 to 40,000 pilgrims assemble at this festival from all parts of the country, to bathe in the sacred tank at the foot of the hill, and a fair is held which lasts for fifteen days.

Bávanapádu.—Town and port in the Tekkali Estate, Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 18° 36′ N., long. 84° 24′ 30″ E.; houses, 206; pop. 960, chiefly fishermen. Situated 4 miles from Naupada, the largest salt station in the District, whence the salt is exported *viâ* Bávanapádu. Average value of trade for the two years 1873-75—exports, £9241; imports, £3343.

Báwan.—*Parganá* in Hardoi *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by North Sara, on the east by South Sara and Gopamau, on the south by Sándi and Bangar, and on the west by Barwan and Saromannagar. A stronghold of the Thatherás, the ruins of whose fortress cover several acres of jungle. The expulsion of the Thatherás is said to have occurred in this way:—Rájá Jái Chánd of Kanauj deputed two Gaur chiefs to collect the annual tribute from the Thatherás in what are now *parganás* Barwan and Sara. This they did, but they retained the money and represented that the Thatherás were rebellious and refused to pay; whereupon the king despatched a strong force against them from Kanauj, put them to the sword, and settled the Gaurs on their lands. For the most part the tract is level, but in the west the ground breaks into slight undulations; it is not watered by any river, but there are numerous *jhils*, tanks, and wells, by which $\frac{3}{10}$ of the cultivated area is irrigated. Area, 63 square miles, of which 49 are cultivated. Staple products—barley, wheat, *bájra*, *moth*, *arhar*, millet, sugar-cane, and *maskalái*. Government land revenue demand, £4525; average incidence, 3s. $1\frac{7}{8}$d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. $0\frac{3}{4}$d. per acre of total area. Of the 57 villages composing the *parganá*, 13 are held in *zamíndárí* and 44 in *pattídárí* tenure. Chamár Gaurs hold 35 villages; Raghubansís, 5; Sombansís, 4; Muhammadans, 4; Káyasths, 2; and Bráhmans, Raikwárs, Chandels, Bais, and Chauháns,

1 each. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 25,173, and Muhammadans, 864—total, 26,037, viz. 14,108 males and 11,929 females; average density of population, 377 per square mile.

Bawan Buzurg.—Town in Rae Bareli District, Oudh; on the road from Bareli to Digbijaiganj. Founded by the Bhars, and conquered from them by Fakír Khán, an Afghán follower of Ibrahím Sharki, whose descendants still own it. Pop. (1869), 4607. Formerly noted for its manufacture of shields. Government school.

Bawdee.—Revenue circle in Thúnkhwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma; includes Kaloung. Gross revenue (1876), £5686, chiefly from fisheries; pop. (1876), 6756, mainly fishermen, petty traders, and cultivators.

Bawigirí.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam. Lat. 25° 29′ N., long. 90° 37′ E.

Baxá.—One of the Subdivisions of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal, extending from the Torsha to the Sankos river, and bordering on the Eastern Dwárs. Headquarters at Alipur.

Baxá.—Military cantonment in Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; situated on a small gravel plateau, in a valley in the lower range of the Bhután Hills. Lat. 26° 50′ N., long. 89° 36′ E. It is 32 miles from Kuch Behar town, a good road connecting the two places; about 2 miles from Sontrábárí, at the base of the mountains, and 6 miles from the Bhután frontier. The cantonment consists of a rough fort, to which two pickets are attached, situated on spurs at a higher elevation. The plateau is 1800 feet above sea level. Baxá was established during the Bhután war of 1864-65, and, since the annexation of the Dwárs, a native infantry regiment has been permanently stationed here. The troops are lodged in barracks made of rough timber, with grass-thatched roofs. Two regimental market-places are situated at the west of the fort, and half a mile to the north is a Bhutiá village, with about 200 inhabitants. Water is obtained from two perennial streams, one of which issues from the base of the plateau.

Baxá.—One of the WESTERN DWARS of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal. Area, 300 square miles; number of 'enclosures,' 279; number of houses, 714; pop. (1870), including Baxá Hills, 5142, of whom 3162 were males and 1980 females; average density of population, 17 per square mile; number of houses per square mile, 2·38; persons per 'enclosure,' 18·8; persons per house, 7·2.

Baxár.—Subdivision of Sháhabad District, Bengal, lying between 25° 15′ 45″ and 25° 42′ 30″ N. lat., and between 83° 48′ 30″ and 84° 24′ 15″ E. long.; area, 626 square miles; number of villages, 781; number of houses, 60,057; pop. (1872), 371,039, comprising 344,772 Hindus (or 92·9 per cent. of the population), 26,054 Muhammadans, and 213 Christians and others; average density of population, 593 per square

mile; villages per square mile, 1·25; houses per square mile, 96; persons per village, 475; persons per house, 6·2. The Subdivision consists of the *thánás* (police circles) of Baxár, Dumráon, and Chausá. It contained in 1870-71, 3 magisterial and revenue courts, and a total police force, including village watch, of 2115 men. The total separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year was returned at £4169.

Baxár.—Municipal town on the south bank of the Ganges, in Sháhabad District, Bengal, and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name (*vide supra*). Lat. 25° 34′ 24″ N., long. 84° 0′ 46″ E.; area, 1789 acres; pop. (1872), 13,446, comprising 9829 Hindus, 3423 Muhammadans, and 194 Christians; number of males 6701, females 6745; municipal revenue in 1872, £408; incidence of municipal taxation, 7½d. per head of population within municipal limits. There is a station of the East Indian Railway here—distance from Calcutta, 411 miles; and a registration station for trade was established at Baxár in 1875. Considerable traffic is carried on both by rail and river, principally in sugar, cotton, piece-goods, and salt. The place is famous as the scene of the defeat by Sir Hector Munro of Mír Kasím, the last independent Nawáb of Murshidabad, in a battle which finally won the Lower Provinces of Bengal for the British (Oct. 22, 1764). Baxár is a place of great sanctity, and is said to have been originally called *Vedágarbhá*, 'the womb of the Vedás,' as many of the inspired writers of the Vedic hymns lived here. A Government stud depôt, maintained here for some years has recently been discontinued.

Baxar.—Village in Unao District, Oudh.—*See* BAKSAR.

Baxár Canal.—A branch of the Són Canal system, which leaves the Main Western Canal at the twelfth mile from the headworks at Dehrí, and runs in a northerly direction until it joins the Ganges at Baxár; total length, 45 miles. Lat. 25° 1′ to 25° 35′ 30″ N., long. 84° 2′ to 84° 8′ E. It is designed for navigation as well as irrigation; minimum width, 47 feet at base and 75 feet on water-line, with depth of 7 feet and side slopes of 2 to 1. With its branches it commands the country between the Káo and the Dunautí, which is much in need of irrigation.

Baynes' Hill.—*See* NUNDYDROOG.

Bayrá Bíl.—The largest *bíl* or marsh in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, covering an area of 40 square miles. Lat. 22° 30′ to 22° 40′ 45″ N., long. 89° 3′ to 89° 8′ 30″ E.; situated east of the Jamuná river, in Buran *parganá*. The unhealthiness of this fiscal division is attributed to the malaria generated by this and other large marshes. The greater part of the *bíl* is covered with reed jungle.

Bayrá.—A considerable grain depôt and rice mart in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal.

Bázárgaon.—Village in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; about

25 miles west of Nágpur. Lat. 21° 8′ 30″ N., long. 78° 48′ 45″ E.; pop. about 2000, mainly traders. Situated in a picturesque country, on the Bisnúr route to Berar and Bombay, the village attained great prosperity; but since the opening of the railway, the traffic by the road has become of less importance. A substantial police station and school-house have lately been built. To the west is a fine masonry reservoir, constructed about thirty years ago; and on the south a fort, built about seventy years since by Dvárkojí Náik, a commander of 5000 mercenaries, and commissary-general under Rájá Jánojí of Nágpur.

Beas (*Biás*).—One of the 'Five Rivers' of the Punjab, the Hyphasis of the Greeks (Sanskrit, *Vipasa*). Lat. 31° 11′ to 32° 22′ 30″ N., long. 75° 4′ to 77° 16′ 45″ E. Rises in the snowy mountains of Kullu 13,326 feet above the sea, traverses the State of Mandi, and enters Kángra District at Sanghol on its E. frontier. During the early part of its course the fall averages 125 feet to the mile. Forms the main channel for the drainage of Kángra, and flows here in a meandering westerly course through hilly country, with a fall of 7 feet to the mile. Elevation at Sanghol 1920 feet above sea level; at Mírthal *ghát*, where it debouches into the plains, 1000 feet. Near Reh in Kángra District the river divides into three channels, which reunite shortly after passing Mírthal. During its lower hill course the Beas is crossed by numerous ferries, at many of which the means of communication consist of inflated skins (*daráis*). On meeting the Siwálik Hills in the District of Hushiárpur, the river sweeps sharply northward, to form the boundary between that District and Kángra. After bending round the base of the Siwáliks, it takes a southerly direction, and divides the Districts of Hushiárpur and Gurdáspur. In this portion of its course through the uplands of the Punjab plain, a strip of low alluvial soil fringes its banks, subject in flood-time to inundation from the central stream. The main channel is broad and ill defined, full of islands, and expanding from time to time into wide pools. The depth does not exceed 5 feet in dry weather, swelling to 15 feet during the rains. Broad, flat-bottomed country boats navigate this portion of the stream throughout the year. No bridges span the Beas in the Districts of Hushiárpur or Gurdáspur. After touching Jalandhar District for a few miles, the Beas forms the boundary between Amritsar and the Kapúrthála State. At Wazír Bholar *ghát* it is crossed by a railway bridge on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line; and a bridge of boats on the Grand Trunk Road is maintained at the same place during the cold season. The channel shifts from year to year through the alluvial valley according to the action of the floods. Finally, the Beas joins the Sutlej (Satlaj) at the southern boundary of the Kapurthála State, after a total course of 290 miles. It ranks sixth in size among the rivers of the Punjab.

Beáwar (*Beawr, Náyanagar*).—Municipality and modern commercial town in Ajmere-Mhairwára District, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 9′ 15″ N., long. 74° 23′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 9544 souls. Founded in 1835 by Colonel Dixon, Commissioner of Ajmere-Mhairwára, in the neighbourhood of the cantonments, Beáwar rapidly grew into a prosperous town, owing to its advantageous position between Meywar (Oodeypore) and Marwar (Jodhpore). The plan was regularly drawn out from the beginning, and sites allotted to various traders who applied for shops. Fine wide streets, planted with trees; a stone wall surrounding the town; houses of masonry, with tiled roofs. Chief mart of cotton traffic for the District; manufacture of ironwork; trade in dyeing. Only town in Mhairwára tract. Post office, dispensary; headquarters of Assistant Commissioner. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1954, or 3s. 3½d. per head of population (11,833) within municipal limits.

Bechráji.—Celebrated temple in the Pátan Subdivision of Baroda State, Bombay; 15 miles from the town of Vizianagram, in Ahmedabad District. Scene of a great religious festival in the month of Aswin (September-October), to which about 20,000 persons annually resort.

Bedanga (or *Beldángá*).—Town in Murshidabad District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 56′ 15″ N., long. 88° 18′ E.; pop. (1872), 6037, comprising 4136 Hindus, 1885 Muhammadans, and 16 'others'; number of males, 2871—females, 3166.

Beddadanol.—Village in Godávari District, Madras; situated in the centre of the only Barákhar sandstones and coal-bearing formation of the Presidency (a small field 5½ square miles in extent), 38 miles west of Rájahmundry, and 4 miles from the boundaries of the Nizám's Dominions.

Bednúr (or *Nagar*).—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 50′ N., long. 75° 6′ E.; pop. (1871), 1295. In 1640, made the capital of the Keladi chieftains, who transferred their capital from IKKERI, it attained great prosperity, and was strongly fortified with a wall 8 miles in circumference. When sacked by Haidar Alí in 1763, it is said to have yielded a booty of 12 millions sterling. The conqueror established his arsenal here, and continued the mint at which the first Haidari pagódas were struck. Bednúr suffered during the wars with Tippu Sultán, and was also an object of attack in the insurrection of 1830. It has latterly benefited by the opening of roads across the Gháts, and is the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name. (*See* NAGAR.) The name of Nagar, by which it is now generally known, was given to it in the days when it was boasted to contain a *lákh* (100,000) of houses.

Begamabad.—Town in Meerut District, North-Western Provinces; distant 14 miles from Meerut, and 28 miles from Delhi. Lat. 26° 54′ 38″ N., long. 81° 53′ 35″ E.; pop. (1872), 2889 souls. Lies on Grand

Trunk Road; station on Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway; handsome temple built by Ráni Bála Bái of Gwalior; ruined mosque of Nawáb Zafar Alí, founder of the town; encamping ground, police station, post office, telegraph, school, *bázár;* good water supply; village police of 6 men.

Begamganj.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Gonda and Utraula *tahsíls*, on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, and on the south-west by the river Ganges, separating it from Fyzabad and Bara Banki Districts. Area, 658 square miles, of which 368 are cultivated; pop. (1869), Hindus, 335,101, and Muhammadans, 18,463—total 355,564, of whom 184,033 are males and 171,531 females; number of villages, 561; average density of population, 540 per square mile. The *tahsíl* consists of the four *parganás* of Nawábganj, Digsar, Mahadewa, and Guwárich.

Begu Sarái.—Subdivision of Monghyr District, Bengal, lying between 25° 15′ and 25° 46′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 51′ 45″ and 86° 35′ E. long.; area, 769 square miles; number of villages, 703; number of houses, 96,915; pop. (1872), 537,725, comprising 488,366 Hindus (or 90·8 per cent. of the population), 49,093 Muhammadans, and 266 Christians and others; average density of population, 699 per square mile; villages per square mile, ·91; houses per square mile, 126; persons per village, 765; persons per house, 5·5. The Subdivision comprises the *thánás* (police circles) of Tegrá and Baliyá. In 1870-71 it contained 3 magisterial and revenue courts, and a police force of 1050 men, of whom 1015 belonged to the village watch. The total separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year, including police, was returned at £2418. Of the total area (769 square miles, or 492,160 acres), 52,800 acres are uncultivated, 340,000 are under food crops, and 99,360 under other than food crops. Most of the chief indigo factories of Monghyr lie in this Subdivision.

Behar.—One of the four great Provinces which make up the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, the remaining three being Bengal Proper, Orissa, and Chutiá Nágpur. It lies between 23° 49′ and 27° 29′ N. lat., and between 83° 22′ and 88° 35′ E. long.; and comprises the ten Districts of PATNA, SARAN, GAYA, SHAHABAD, TIRHUT, CHAMPARAN, the SANTAL PARGANAS, BHAGALPUR, MONGHYR, and PURNIAH—all of which see separately. Area, 42,417 square miles, with 48,285 villages or townships, and 3,252,036 houses; pop. (1872), 19,736,101 souls, comprising 16,526,850 Hindus (or 83·7 per cent. of the population), 2,636,053 Muhammadans, 54 Buddhists, 8063 Christians, and 565,081 'others,' chiefly aborigines; number of males, 9,797649 (or 49·6 per cent. of the total population)—females, 9,938,452; average density of population, 465; persons per village, 409. Of the

male adult population, 3,613,231 are returned as agriculturists, and 2,489,557 as non-agriculturists. Principal aboriginal tribes — Bhars, Cherus, Dhángars, Kanjhárs, Kharwárs, Kols, Mals, Naiyás, Nats, Pahariás, Santáls, and Tharus.

The country generally is flat, except in the District of Monghyr, where detached hills occur, and in the south-east of the Province, where the Rájmahal and Santál ranges abut upon the plains. The highest hill is Moher (1620 feet), in Gayá District; the range in the Santál Parganás varies from 800 to 1600 feet in height. The great river is the Ganges, which, entering at Baxár and leaving at Rájmahal, divides the Province into two almost equal portions—the northern comprising the Districts of Sáran, Champáran, Tirhut, Purniah, and part of Monghyr and Bhágalpur; and the southern containing Sháhabad, Patná, Gayá, the Santál Parganás, and the remainder of Monghyr and Bhágalpur Districts. Both portions are watered by large tributaries of the Ganges, the chief of these being the Gogra, the Gandak, the Kusí, the Mahánanda in the north, and the Són in the south. Other physical features of the Province will be found referred to in the separate articles on the Districts composing it. To these articles, too, the reader is referred for agricultural, administrative, and trade statistics, etc. The most important industries of the Province are the manufacture of opium (*see* PATNA) and indigo (*see* TIRHUT).

History.—In ancient times, Behar comprised the dominions of the kings of Magadha, who were at one time the lords paramount of India, and whose court is traditionally represented as one of the most brilliant in the East. This kingdom flourished from the 4th century before the Christian era to the 5th century after it. The Magadha monarchs encouraged arts and learning, constructed roads, and sent their fleets across the Bay of Bengal to colonize Java, Bali, and other islands in the Indian Archipelago. The kingdom is supposed to have attained its greatest grandeur in the time of Seleukos Nikator, one of the immediate successors of Alexander the Great, who invaded Magadha and appointed Megasthenes to represent him at the court at Palibothra, which is supposed to have been on the site of the present city of Patná. But ancient Behar is chiefly interesting as having been, six centuries before the Christian era, the cradle of Buddhism. It sent its missionaries to Ceylon, China, Tartary, and Thibet, and the Province is still regarded as sacred by all Buddhist nations. Numerous buildings and sculptures of great antiquity and interest found throughout the Province show how firmly the religion of Gautama had established itself in this part of India. These Buddhist antiquities will be referred to in the separate articles on the Behar Districts. In the beginning of the 13th century, Behar came into the hands of the Muhammadans, and from

that time it formed one of the three *subahs*, or provinces, under the Nawáb of Bengal. The East India Company acquired it with the *díwání* in 1765, when the Province was united with Bengal.

Behar.—Subdivision of Patná District, Bengal, lying between 24° 57′ 30″ and 25° 25′ 45″ N. lat., and between 85° 11′ 45″ and 85° 46′ 30″ E. long.; area, 792 square miles; number of villages, 1040; number of houses, 93,327; pop. (1872), 570,888, comprising 500,434 Hindus (or 88·7 per cent. of the population), 70,422 Muhammadans, and 32 'others.' Average density of population, 721 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·31; houses per square mile, 118; persons per village, 549; persons per house, 6·1. The Subdivision consists of the *thánás* of Behar, Hilsá, and Atá Sarái. In 1870-71 it contained 1 magisterial court, and a total police force of 1894 men, of whom 1714 belonged to the village watch. The total separate cost of Subdivisional administration in that year was returned at £1036. Throughout this tract are found numerous Buddhist and other antiquities of great interest to the archæologist. The Province, indeed, takes its name from *Vihára*, meaning a Buddhist monastery.—*See* RAJAGRIHA, GIRIYAK, and PATNA DISTRICT.

Behar.—Municipal town on the Pancháná river, and headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 11′ 28″ N., long. 85° 33′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 44,295, comprising 31,006 Hindus, 13,282 Muhammadans, and 7 'others'; number of males, 21,672—females, 22,623; estimated number of houses, 8346; municipal income in 1871, £1100; incidence of municipal taxation, 6d. per head of population within municipal limits; police force for protection of the town, 97 men. Considerable trade is carried on here. All the traffic between Patná, Gayá, Hazáribágh, and Monghyr passes through Behar, and travelling traders offer their goods for sale as they pass. Principal articles of trade—European cloth, rice and other grains, cotton, tobacco, etc. Silk and cotton cloths, and muslins rivalling those of Dacca, are manufactured here. About twenty years ago, up-country Muhammadan dealers used to export large quantities of Behar muslins, but these men have now (1877) apparently ceased coming to the town. The most remarkable building in Behar is a large *sarái* or inn, recently built for the use of Hindu and Muhammadan pilgrims. The tomb of Sháh Múkhdum, on the south bank of the river, is resorted to by about 20,000 Musalmáns once a year, a large fair being held on the occasion. Many other tombs are found in the city, which also contains numerous ancient mosques, and the ruins of an old fort, covering more than 300 acres of ground. The city is supposed to have been the capital of the ancient kingdom of Magadha, soon after the commencement of the Christian era, but its early history is involved in obscurity.

Behar. — *Parganá* and town in Partabgarh District, Oudh.—*See* BIHAR.

Behar.—*Parganá* and town in Unao District, Oudh.—*See* BIHAR.

Behti. — Village in Partabgarh District, Oudh. Picturesquely situated on the bank of a large lake covering an area of about 10 square miles in the rains, and 3 square miles in the dry season. To the north is a high bank covered with groves of magnificent trees. The lake, edged with rich crops and orchards, stretches away to the south. It is reported to have been dug by a Rájá of Ajodhya as a votive offering. It is celebrated for wild-fowl and fish, and an island in the middle contains an ancient edifice built as a shooting-box by some prince. Pop. (1869), 1733. Three Hindu temples.

Behti Kalan.—Town in Rae Bareli District, Oudh. The town is of no commercial importance, but contains a fine Hindu temple to Mahádeo, and a population (1869) of 4798.

Beja.—State, Punjab.—*See* BIJA.

Bekal (the '*Cota Koulam*' of De Barros).—Town in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 12° 23′ 45″ N., long. 75° 4′ 35″ E.; houses, 255; pop. 1034. Possesses a large fort in fair preservation, with fortifications bearing traces of European science, built on a high point projecting into the sea. It was probably first erected during the wars between the Ikkeri and Cherakal Rájás, and subsequently improved.

Belá.—Town in Partabgarh District, Oudh; 4 miles from Partabgarh town, and 36 from Allahabad, on the road from Allahabad to Fyzabad. Lat. 25° 55′ 30″ N., long. 82° 2′ 10″ E.; pop. (1869), 2746. The administrative headquarters of the District are at MacAndrew-ganj, adjoining the town.

Belá (or *Vela*). — Agricultural town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; 10 miles south of Borí. Lat. 20° 46′ 35″ N., long. 79° 3′ 54″ E.; pop. (1872), 5012. Has two fine wells, a school-house, and police buildings. Exports coarse cotton cloth and gunny, the fabric of which the Banjárás' packs are made. Said to have been founded in the time of the Gaulís. The fort was built by Rái Sinh Chaudhari, a large landholder, whose descendants are still *málguzárs* of Belá. It was twice destroyed during the Pindári troubles.

Belágavi (or *Balagami*).—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 24′ N., long. 75° 18′ E.; pop. (1871), 1491. Celebrated for its ruined temples, which for the taste and finish of their carving are not surpassed by any in Mysore. The capital of the Kadamba dynasty, as early as the 12th century it was regarded as 'the mother of cities.' It abounds with inscriptions, of which sixty-two have been photographed and translated. Its prosperity continued under the Ballala kings, and it was probably destroyed when their power was

overthrown by the Muhammadans in 1310. Some of the sculptures have been carried away to the Mysore Museum.

Belápur.—Seaport in Tanna District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—exports, £19,383; imports, £3227.

Beldángá.—Town in Murshidabad District, Bengal.—*See* BEDANGA.

Belgaum.—A British District in Bombay Presidency, lying between 15° 22′ and 16° 56′ N. lat., and between 74° 4′ and 75° 35′ E. long.; area, 4591 square miles; pop. (1872), 938,750. The District is bounded on the north by the State of Miraj, north-east by Kaládgi District, east by the States of Jamkhandi and Mudhol, south by the Districts of Dharwar and North Kanara, south-west by the territory of Goa, and west by the States of Sáwantwári and Kolhápur.

Physical Aspects.—The country forms a large plain studded with solitary peaks, and broken here and there by low ranges of hills. Many of the peaks are crowned by small but well-built hill forts. The ranges of low hills are generally covered with wild brushwood, but in some cases their sides are carefully cultivated almost to the very summit. The most elevated portion of the District lies to the west, along the line of the Sahyádri Hills or Western Ghâts. The surface of the plain slopes with an almost imperceptible fall eastwards to the borders of Kaládgi District. On the north and east the District is open and well cultivated, but to the south it is intersected by spurs of the Sahyádri range, thickly covered in some places with forest. Except near the Sahyádri range, and in other places where broken by lines of low hills, the country is almost a dead level. But especially in the south, and along the banks of the larger rivers, the surface is pleasantly varied by trees, solitary and in groups. From January to June the fields are bare, and but for the presence of the mango, tamarind, jack, and other trees, reared for their fruit, the aspect of the country would be desolate in the extreme.

The principal rivers are the Kistna (Krishna), flowing through the centre, and the Malprabhá through the south of the District. From their sources among the spurs of the Sahyádri range, both these rivers pass eastwards through the plain of Belgaum on their way to the Bay of Bengal. They are bordered by deeply-cut banks, over which they seldom flow. None of the rivers are serviceable for purposes of navigation. In the west, both rivers and wells yield a sufficient supply of good water; but towards the east the rivers become brackish, and the water-bearing strata lie far below the surface. Except the Kistna, which at all times maintains a considerable flow of water, the rivers sink into insignificant streams during the hot season, and the supply of water falls short of the wants of the people.

The general character of the geology of Belgaum District may be

described as a trap formation overlaid with laterite detritus. Iron ore is found in some places. In the north are rocks of sandstone and quartz; in the south is found a fine red sandstone, near the Sahyádri Hills; and farther east a grey granite, mica schist, and laterite in large quantities.

Sometimes in April and May the heat is extreme, and in June and July the air is close and heavy, but on the whole the climate is equable and pleasant to Europeans. For a series of years from 1852 to 1861 the average annual rainfall was 46·32 inches; between 1862 and 1871, 24·77; and in 1875, 39·10 inches. At the close of the rainy season, in October and November, fevers are common, but at other times, except in the wilder or less cultivated tracts near the Sahyádri Hills, the climate is healthy.

In the west of the District, among the spurs of the Sahyádri range, is a considerable area of forest-bearing land. Formerly large forest tracts were yearly destroyed by the indiscriminate practice of *kumari*, or the cultivation of shifting patches of fire-cleared woodland. This form of tillage has now been placed under restrictions. The most important forest trees are the teak, blackwood, *honne* (Pterocarpus marsupium), and jackwood. There are also a few *bábul* reserves.

Of wild animals, antelope are common, ranging over the black soil plains in herds of from 20 to 40 head. *Sámbhar* deer, wild pigs, and hyænas are found in the waste and forest lands. Of the larger beasts of prey, panthers are pretty generally distributed, but tigers are met with only in the south and south-west. Of game-birds there are wild peacock, partridge, quail, snipe, teal, *kalam*, and occasionally bustard. Except the well-built and agile Mysore cattle, and one or two varieties of buffaloes of northern origin, usually kept by the *gaulís* or professional milkmen, the local breeds of cattle are poor.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 938,750 persons, or 204·47 to the square mile. Of these, 862,215, or 91·84 per cent., including 47,564 Sráwaks or Jains, were Hindus; 71,386, or 7·60 per cent., Musalmáns; 5067, or ·53 per cent., Christians; and 82 Parsís. The percentage of males in the total population is 51·01.

The people are chiefly employed as cultivators, though a considerable number, amounting to 104,341, or 11 per cent. of the entire population, support themselves by weaving. Among the Hindus the only special class are the Lingáyats, a peculiar section of the worshippers of Siva. Along the banks of the Kistna, in the north of the District, are many Kaikáris, a tribe notorious from the skill of one of its subdivisions as highway robbers.

Of the 814,651 Hindus, exclusive of 47,564 Sráwaks or Jains, 9609 are returned as Vishnuvites; 307,738 as Sivaites, including 285,402

Lingáyats; 497,304 as 'undefined,' including 209 religious ascetics. Of the 91,386 Musalmáns, 71,201 are Sunis and 185 Shiás. Of the 82 Parsís, 68 are Shensháhi and 14 Kadmi. Of the 5067 Christians, 4475 are native converts.

The languages in use are Maráthi, Hindustáni, and Kanarese. The Parsís employ Guzeráti among themselves, both in conversation and writing. Kanarese is the official language of the District.

Of the whole population, 147,111 persons, or 15·67 per cent., live in towns containing a population of more than 5000 souls. The villages are generally shaded by trees, and surrounded by a hedge of prickly pear (Opuntia vulgaris). They are otherwise without defence or fortification. In the west of the District, the houses have roofs of thatch or tile, but eastwards, where the rainfall is light, the roof is flat, made of mud and surrounded by a mud parapet. Each village has generally one chief street, in which the richest villagers have their dwellings, with smaller roads branching off at right angles. Except in the larger towns, there are few houses more than one storey high. In country villages, the well-to-do live in houses with walls of brick and doors of wood, of which, in many instances, the posts and lintel are elegantly carved. The foundations of the houses are raised on a plinth generally of hewn stone, 2 or 3 feet above the level of the street. The middle classes live in dwellings with walls of mud and straw, and doors of plaited or woven bamboos; the poor in huts with roofs of thatch and walls of a few bamboos interlaced with millet stalks, sometimes daubed over with mud. Outside the village hedge, a group of carelessly-made hovels form the quarters of the Mahárs and other depressed classes.

Exclusive of 333 hamlets, there were, in 1872, 1078 inhabited villages, giving an average of ·23 villages to each square mile, and 87·82 inhabitants to each village. The number of houses was 188,177, or 41·13 per square mile; of these, 7774 houses, lodging 46,093 persons, or 4·91 per cent. of the entire population, were buildings with walls of stone or fire-baked brick, and roofs of tile. The remaining 180,403 houses, accommodating 892,657 persons, or 95·09 per cent., had outer walls of mud or sun-dried brick and thatched roofs.

Trade associations or guilds scarcely exist in Belgaum, and the con stitution of the village community is but imperfectly preserved. [illegible]iver. office of village head-man or *patel* still remains in many cases here[illegible]es. and more rarely stipendiary. By caste, most of the village head-men a[illegible] Hindus of the Lingáyat sect. The office of village clerk, *kulkarni*, is, with but few exceptions, hereditary in Hindu families of the Bráhma caste. Almost all villages have watchmen and messengers of the Mahár caste. The head-man, clerk, and watchman are paid both in cash and in land. The other members of the full staff of village

servants are found in but few villages. The shoemaker, the barber, and the potter still remain, but only as ordinary workmen, having almost completely lost their public character.

Agriculture.—Wet cultivation is carried on to a very limited extent, being adopted only for rice fields and gardens. Irrigated lands in the most favourable situations receive their supply of water by canals from perennial rivulets, or from rivers that have dams or weirs thrown across them. The chief varieties of soil are black and red; of these the black is by far the most fertile. It is of two kinds; one so friable, that when swept by a strong wind it rises in clouds of almost impalpable powder. Under foot this soil is heavy, and when impregnated with moisture forms a tough, clay-like substance, almost impervious to water, and therefore very valuable as a lining for tanks. The other variety of black soil is not so tenacious of moisture, and unless it receives abundance of irrigation, either natural or artificial, not nearly so productive. The inferiority of the red soil is due chiefly to the fact that, being of a more sandy composition, it retains moisture for a shorter time. In order to bring a waste of black soil under tillage, the field must receive three complete ploughings—one direct, one transverse, and one diagonal. For the future it does not want any further ploughing; on the contrary, the great aim of the cultivator is to maintain the surface as firm and consistent as possible, and all that is required annually before sowing is to clear the ground and loosen the surface with a small knife. The red and sandy soils are very apt to cake and harden after rain, so that the object of the farmer is to keep them as loose and friable as possible. For this purpose the field must be ploughed every year; if possible, once lengthwise and a second time transversely. This is done by a smaller plough of the same construction as the large plough used for black fields, but so light that the farmer on his way to and from work may be seen carrying his plough on his shoulder. Fields of pure black soil do not want manure; on the other hand, the out-turn from red and sandy lands seems to depend almost entirely on the amount of dressing they have received. Cultivators are aware that land requires stimulating, but, from the scarcity of firewood, much cow-dung, which would be their best manure, is consumed as fuel.

On dry fields most of the grain, pulses, oil-seeds, and fibres are nur[illegible]; of these some are cultivated on red and sandy soils during the p[illegible]y months, others are grown on black soil as a cold-weather crop. Cotton, which is raised entirely on black soil as a cold-weather crop, is usually sown about the middle of August, or rarely in September. Before sowing, the seed is first dipped in cow-dung and water, and then mixed with a little earth, that it may slip easily through the bamboo drill. Cotton is generally sown by itself, but it is sometimes drilled in rows in the same field with a crop of Italian millet (*bájra*).

The threshing of the monsoon crops commences in December; of the cold-weather crops in March. On a convenient part of the field a space of from 12 to 20 yards in diameter is wetted and beaten until it becomes smooth, hard, and firm. In the case of spiked and red millet, the heads are cut off short and thrown upon the ground. The farmer's whole stock of cattle is then fastened abreast to a rope round a post fixed in the centre of the threshing-floor. For winnowing, a day is chosen with a moderately strong breeze. The winnower stands on a high stool, and has the grain handed up to him in a small flat basket. Holding the basket at arm's-length, he pours the contents gently over its edge, when the heavy grain falls in a heap at the foot of the winnower's stool, while the chaff is blown away by the wind.

Before the heap of grain is taken home by the farmer he has to distribute from it perquisites to the village astrologer, to certain village servants, and to the blacksmith and carpenter, as well as to all sorts of beggars who in the harvest season flock to the threshing-floors. If not intended for seed or immediate use, the grain is usually stored in underground granaries. In order to construct such a grain-pit, the farmer on a somewhat elevated spot, in a hard soil within or near the village, digs a narrow shaft about a cubit in diameter, and 10 to 15 cubits deep. Its sides are then hollowed, so as to form a pit with a roof of about 2 cubits thick. The floor, sides, and roof are lined with straw, and the pit is then filled with grain. Grain meant for immediate consumption is simply stored in front of the cultivator's house, in large cylindrical baskets, smeared inside and out with a plaster of cow-dung.

The agricultural stock in the possession of the cultivators of State (*khálsá*) villages during 1874-75 was returned at 63,720 ploughs, 18,719 carts, 194,758 bullocks, 114,752 buffaloes, 100,652 cows, 7432 horses, 232,378 sheep and goats, and 4182 asses. Out of 1,114,780 acres of Government land, the total area cultivated in the year 1874-75, 136,892 acres, or 12·27 per cent., were fallow or under grass. Of the 977,888 acres under actual cultivation, grain crops occupied 619,061 acres, or 63·30 per cent.; pulses, 99,178 acres, or 10·14 per cent.; oilseeds, 36,370 acres, or 3·71 per cent.; fibres (including cotton), 95,089 acres, or 9·72 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 133,447 acres, or 13·64 per cent.

Trade, etc.—Belgaum District has no railway or navigable river. There are 55 lines of road, with a total length of about 844 miles. The capitalists of the District are chiefly Márwáris and Bráhmans, but in the town of Belgaum there are a few Musalmáns, who possess comfortable fortunes. The current (1875) rates of daily wages are—in towns, for unskilled labourers, from 4½d. to 6d. (3 annas to 4 annas), and for skilled men, such as carpenters and bricklayers, from 1s. to 1s. 6d. (8 annas to 12 annas). The rates paid to agricultural labourers,

who are occasionally engaged in piece-work, are slightly lower. The work of cotton-picking is left entirely to women, who during the season earn about 3d. (2 annas) a day. The prices of the chief articles of food during 1875 were—for 2s. (1 rupee): of wheat, 34 lbs.; of rice, 32 lbs.; of Indian millet or *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), 43 lbs.; of Italian millet or *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), 48 lbs.; and of peas or *dál*, 25 lbs.

Lying so far inland, without railway or navigable river, the District possesses no foreign trade of importance. Cotton is the only article for which the demand is not purely local. European manufactures and other articles required for the European population in the Belgaum cantonment are brought by shopkeepers from Bombay. In several villages throughout the District markets are held at fixed intervals, generally once a week. These markets generally supply the wants of the country round within a radius of about 6 miles, containing as a rule from 25 to 30 villages and hamlets.

Next to agriculture, hand-loom weaving forms the chief industry of the District. The weavers are generally Lingáyats or Musalmáns, with a small sprinkling of Marhattás. The finer sorts of cloth are manufactured only in two or three towns. With the exception of a small quantity of cloth sent to the neighbouring Districts, the produce of its hand-looms is almost entirely consumed in Belgaum. Simple dyeing and tanning is carried on over the whole District. GOKAK town was once famous for its dyers, and is still noted for a coarse kind of paper made in large quantities. Gokák toys, made both from light kinds of wood and from a peculiar kind of earth, are also celebrated. They consist of models of men and gods, fruits and vegetables.

History.—The District of Belgaum forms part of the territory ceded under the name of Dharwar by the Peshwá, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Poona (June 1817). For some years after the cession this territory continued to be administered as one District with Dharwar; but in 1836 it was considered advisable to divide the unwieldy jurisdiction into two parts. Under the arrangements then introduced, the southern portion continued to be known as Dharwar, and the tract to the north was constituted a separate charge under the name of Belgaum.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, Belgaum District is divided into 7 *táluks* or Subdivisions. The administration in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 4 Assistants, of whom 2 are covenanted civil servants. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 5 courts. In 1874-75, the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts was £7498, and the amount realized from court fees and stamps £11,726. The number of cases decided was 4294, and the average value of the property under litigation, £41, 4s. 3d. There are 20 officers for the administration of criminal justice, of whom 6 are Euro-

peans, 4 being covenanted civilians and 2 military officers. In the year 1874, the total strength of the District or regular police force was 669 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £10,562, 18s. These figures show 1 man to every 6·86 square miles as compared with the area, and 1 man to every 1403 souls as compared with the population. The cost of maintenance was equal to £2, 6s. per square mile, or 2¾d. per head of population. In 1875, the Belgaum jail contained a daily average of 872 convicted prisoners, including 71 females—showing 1 prisoner to every 1076 of the population; the total cost was £1246, 14s., or £7, 8s. 4d. per prisoner. The District contains 18 post offices and 1 telegraph office at Belgaum town.

The District local funds for works of public utility, and for the spread of rural education, yielded in the year 1874-75 £14,739. There are 5 municipalities in the District:—BELGAUM TOWN, pop. 26,947 (exclusive of cantonment, 5330); GOKAK, 12,612; ATHNI, 11,588; NIPANI, 9371; YAMKANMARDI, 5226. The total municipal receipts in 1874-75 amounted to £3806, and the total expenditure to £3705; the incidence of taxation varied from 2½d. to 2s. 5d. In 1874-75, the total amount of revenue raised from the District, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, was £188,773, showing an incidence of taxation per head of 4s.; the land revenue alone realized £153,504.

There are 3 dispensaries and 1 hospital. During 1874-75, 13,103 persons in all were treated, of whom 12,773 were out-door and 330 in-door patients. In the same year, 16,190 persons were vaccinated. The total number of deaths during the ten years ending 1875 was returned at 166,130, or an average yearly mortality of 16,613, being 17·6 per 1000 of the total population. During the five years ending 1875, the number of births was returned at 109,370, of whom 56,679 were entered as male, and 52,691 as female children; average yearly number of births, 21,874, or a rate of 23·3 per 1000.

In the year 1873-74, there were 115 Government schools, besides 5 missionary schools, or an average of one school for every 9 villages, with an attendance of 7334 pupils, or 2·61 per cent. of the total population between 6 and 20 years of age (280,288); 7 schools were for girls. Educational expenditure, £10,696, of which £2522 was debited to imperial and £8174 to local and other funds. In Belgaum town there are 7 libraries and 1 local newspaper.

The only famous place of pilgrimage in the District is the hill of the goddess Yellamá, in the Párasgad Subdivision, on which, twice in the year, at the full moon of April and November, fairs are held, lasting for three days. The number of pilgrims varies from 15,000 to 40,000. The November ceremonies represent the death of Yellamá's husband, and those in April his return to life. In November the mysteries are performed at a small shrine about a quarter of a mile distant from the

main temple. At a certain stage in the ceremony the immense multitude raise a deep wail, not unlike the crone of watchers at an Irish wake. With this mingles a crackling sound, arising from the great throng of women, numbering about two-thirds of the whole assembly, who, in sympathy with the goddess in her widowhood, shatter the glass bangles on their arms.

The chief towns of the District are—(1) BELGAUM, with 5608 houses, and a population of 32,277; (2) GOKAK, 3187 houses, pop. 12,612; (3) ATHNI, 2440 houses, pop. 11,588; (4) NIPANI, 2112 houses, pop. 9371; (5) HONGAL, 1659 houses, pop. 9001; (6) SANKESHWAR, 1856 houses, pop. 8905; (7) SAUNDATTI, 1832 houses, pop. 8180; (8) MURGOD, 1453 houses, pop. 7181; (9) KITTUR, 1612 houses, pop. 7166; (10) SADALGI, 1460 houses, pop. 6863; (11) MANOLI, 1365 houses, pop. 6232; (12) CHIKORI, 1314 houses, pop. 6184; (13) NANDGAD, 1316 houses, pop. 5748; (14) HUKERI, 1154 houses, pop. 5364; (15) YAMKANMARDI, 1146 houses, pop. 5296; (16) KONGNOLI, 906 houses, pop. 5143.

Belgaum.—Chief town of the District of the same name, in the southern Marhattá country, Bombay; situated at an elevation of nearly 2500 feet above sea level, on the northern slope of the basin of a watercourse called the Bellary *nálá*, an affluent of the Márkandi river, which flows into the Ghatprabhá, one of the numerous tributaries of the Kistna (Krishná). Lat. 15° 51′ 37″ N., long. 74° 33′ 59″ E.; pop. (1872), 26,947, excluding 5330 in the cantonment; municipal revenue (1874-75), £1970; rate of taxation, 1s. 4½d. per head. The native town lies between the fort on the east and the military cantonment, which extends along its western front, separated from it by a watercourse. It forms an irregular ellipse, approximating to a circle, of which the shorter axis is about 1300 yards. The rock on which the town is built consists of laterite, lying upon the trap of the Deccan. The site is well wooded. Bamboos, from which Vennugrámá, the ancient Kanarese name of the town, is said to be derived, are plentiful, and mangoes, tamarinds, and banians are also abundant. The fort, about 1000 yards in length and 700 in breadth, is surrounded by a broad and deep wet ditch, cut in hard ground. In 1818, after the overthrow of the Peshwá, the place was invested by a British force. After holding out for twenty-one days, the garrison of 1600 men capitulated, having lost 20 killed and 50 wounded, while the loss of the British amounted to 11 killed and 12 wounded.

Since its acquisition by the British, Belgaum has increased greatly in size and wealth. The large military cantonment contributes to its prosperity, while the school built for the children of natives of rank adds to its social importance. Of the total of 4388 houses, 827 are classified as of the better sort, and 3561 of the inferior sort; very few have an upper storey. The principal articles of trade are salt, dry fish, dates,

cocoa-nuts, and coir, imported from the sea-coast, chiefly from the port of Vingorlá. Grain of all kinds, sugar, and molasses are also brought from the country round. The city is said to contain more than 300 looms for the manufacture of cotton cloth. There are 4½ miles of road for wheeled carriages, and 3¼ miles of made thoroughfare in the town. The water supply is entirely derived from wells. Besides the courts and offices of the judge, collector, assistant collector, District superintendent of police, executive engineer, and other District offices, there are 15 Government and aided private schools.

Belgharia (*Belghurriah*).—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway; 7 miles from Calcutta. Aided vernacular school.

Beliá Náráyanpur.—Village on the right bank of the Páglá *nadí*, in Murshidabad District, Bengal. It was formerly in Bírbhúm, but was included in a tract of country recently transferred from that District to Murshidabad. In 1852, it was described as the largest and most important village in the iron-bearing tract of Bírbhúm, and contained 30 furnaces. In 1857, there were 62 furnaces smelting and reducing the iron ore.

Beliápatam.—River in Malabar District, Madras. Rising from several sources in the Gháts on the borders of Coorg, it joins at the foot of the hills another large stream flowing from the range in the north-east of Monatuna. Immediately below the junction the united stream is spanned by the Irriti bridge on the high road from the coast to Coorg and Mysore. From Irikur, where it becomes navigable all the year round for large boats, it flows westward to Grovapoya. Here a third stream, rising from the same sources, joins it, the river widening considerably at the confluence. It then flows past Beliápatam, and debouches into the sea 4 miles south-west of that town. Lat. 11° 57′ N., long. 75° 21′ E. The numerous plantations of areca and cocoa-nut palms make the scenery of the lower stream very picturesque.

Beliápatam (*Valia-patnam*, *Malayálim* (Big-town); probably the *Jurfatton* of Ibn Batuta).—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 55′ N., long. 75° 25′ E.; pop. (1871), 7579, one-third Moplas; houses, 1425. Situated on the left bank of the Beliápatam river, about 4 miles from its mouth, and the same distance from the cantonment of Cannanore. It possesses a thriving trade, steamers occasionally calling at the river mouth. In 1735, the Company obtained permission from the Rájá of Cherakal to build a fort (named Madakara) near this place, and as a precaution against the transport of pepper and cardamoms by the river, the grant goes on to say, 'Be careful that our enemy, Kanara, does not enter any of his vessels in the said river.' Near Beliápatam, Haidar Alí, in his first descent upon Malabar, gained a signal victory. He used a fleet to transport his horsemen across the

river, and the enemy, unaccustomed to cavalry, fled in confusion. A sacred temple stands to the south-east of the town.

Belikeri.—Seaport in North Kanara District, Bombay. Lat. 14° 42′ 45″ N., long. 74° 19′ E. Average annual value of trade for 1873-74—exports, £445; imports, £162.

Belká.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Chief trade, jute and mustard.

Belkuchí.—Town in Pábná District, Bengal; situated on a branch of the Jumná river, which is navigable only in the rainy season. Lat. 24° 19′ 35″ N., long. 89° 47′ 10″ E.; pop. (1872), 5128, comprising 2458 Hindus and 2670 Muhammadans; number of males, 2396—females, 2732. Considerable trade is carried on in jute, cloth, rice, and other goods.

Bellagupa.—Village in Bellary District, Madras. Pop. 1572. It marks the commencement of the great unbroken plain of black cotton soil which stretches hence to the Tungabhadra river. Near Bellagupa are to be seen some curious gallows, with chains and iron cages attached, in which the remains of criminals were formerly exposed.

Bellamkondá (*Billam-Kondá*, Telugu, 'The Hill of the Cave').—Hill in Kistna District, Madras; 1569 feet above the level of the sea, crowned with the ruins of an old fortress. Lat. 16° 30′ 40″ N., long. 80° 3′ 30″ E. A village of the same name stands on the high road from Guntoor to Nelkonda, at the foot of the hill.

Bellary (*Ballári*, *Valahári*).—A British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 13° 40′ 30″ and 15° 58′ N. lat., and 75° 43′ and 78° 19′ E. long.; area, 11,007 square miles; population in 1871, 1,668,006. The river Tungabhadra bounds it on the north, separating it from the territories of the Nizám; on the east lie the Districts of Cuddapah and Kurnool; and on the other two sides stretches Mysore.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of the District is a vast surface of treeless plain, broken at rare intervals by granite masses that spring abruptly from the surrounding sheet of black cotton soil, like rocks from the sea. Bellary is in fact an extensive plateau, tilted up in the west on the shoulders of the Gháts, and sloping down sharply towards the eastern coast. At Belgaum the height of the plain is 2500 feet above the sea level; at Tádpatri, on the extreme east of the District, the elevation is only 900 feet. Water is very scarce throughout, and vegetation is accordingly rare. In the Madaksíra *táluk* alone, the garden of the District, perennial streams keep the tanks supplied with water, and give life to groves and avenues of trees. Three rivers drain the District. The Tungabhadra, forming the northern boundary, contains water all the year round, and in the rainy season swells to formidable dimensions. On its banks stand the towns of Hampságra, Hospet, Hampi, Kampli; and at Rampúr a fine

bridge of 52 piers carries the railway across the stream. The sacred Pennár hardly deserves the name of a river, for during nine months of the year it is quite dry. The Hugri rises in Mysore, and after a course of 125 miles joins the Tungabhadra near Hatsahalli. Though very shallow for two-thirds of the year, this river when in flood overflows its banks, and in 1857 washed away the town of Juhein. The only hill ranges worthy of note are those of Sandhúr and Kampli in the west, and the Lanka Malla in the east; between these, scattered generally over the District, occur detached masses of granitic rock. Iron of good quality abounds, and copper, lead, antimony, manganese, and alum are all found. Salt and saltpetre are extracted from the soil. The diamond mines in the Tádpatri and Gooty *táluks*, though once worked systematically and successfully, have not yielded any revenue since 1813. The fauna of the District includes among mammals, the tiger, panther, cheetah, wolf, black bear, hyæna, wild boar, antelope, and *sámbhar* deer; the first and last being very rare. Among birds, the order of *Raptores* is largely represented: the bustard, florican, pea-fowl, partridge, quail, snipe, goose, and water-fowl afford excellent sport. Venomous snakes abound. The flora is scanty,—the *babul* (Acacia Arabica), *bér* (Zizyphus jujuba), and wild date (Elate sylvestris) being the chief indigenous trees, but in the topes and gardens are found the mango, tamarind, cocoa-nut palm, banian, and *ním*.

History.—Within the District of Bellary lies the site of the ancient city of VIJAYANAGAR, and its annals therefore date back to the first Muhammadan invasion of the Deccan, in the 14th century. But it is not until 1640, when Sivají, the Marhattá, received a formal grant from the Sultán of Bijápur of the forts of Bellary and Adoni, with the country adjacent, that the tract corresponding to the present District may be said to have entered upon a separate history. The District round Gooty remained subject to Golconda, but farther south (yet still within the present District of Bellary) the Poligars of Raidroog, Anantapur, and Harpanhalli became tributary to the Marhattás. Sivají died in 1680, and soon afterwards Aurangzeb advanced upon the Deccan with the imperial army and overran the District. His authority, however, was never formally established, and the revenues of Bellary were farmed out to the Poligars, who deducted what they chose for military and other expenses, and remitted the balance to the Imperial treasury. After the death of Aurangzeb, and the rise of the Nizám's power, several of the Bellary chiefs, notably those of Gooty and Sandhúr, asserted a semi-independence. Meanwhile Mysore had risen to strength; and, on the death of the Nizám, Haidar Alí, the usurper of the Mysore throne, accepting the invitation of Basalat Jang, the governor of Adoni, to assist him against the Marhattás,

overran the present District of Bellary. Kodikonda, Madaksíra, Hindupur, Harpanhalli, Raidroog, and Chitaldroog submitted. Gooty, however, resisted all attacks. The Marhattás soon took the field in force to regain the lost fortresses, and Haidar Alí, defeated at Rettihalli, was compelled to abandon all his conquests except Raidroog, Chitaldroog, and Harpanhalli. The Mysore war broke out in 1767, and Haidar Alí, to recruit his finances, began to levy contributions from the surrounding Districts. Gooty, however, again resisted his demands, and at Bellary, then a dependency of Adoni, he fared no better. But soon afterwards (1774) the Poligar of Bellary, Basalat Jang, withheld payment from the Nizám, and M. Lally was sent with a force to reduce him to obedience. He appealed for help to Haidar, who defeated the Adoni troops, but kept Bellary for himself. A third attempt upon Gooty was successful, and, making it his headquarters, Haidar continued to hold his own for two years against both the Marhattás and the Nizám. Throughout these campaigns the Poligars of Chitaldroog, Raidroog, Harpanhalli, and other divisions of the present District, acted as the acknowledged tributaries of Mysore. On Haidar's death all asserted their independence; but Tippu, who had succeeded his father, captured their fortresses one after the other, put the chiefs of Raidroog and Harpanhalli to death as a warning to the rest, and collected all their arms and stores in the strongholds of Gooty and Bellary. But arousing the hostility of the British Government, Tippu was in 1789 involved in war, and on the conclusion of peace, and the partition of Tippu's last conquests, the present Bellary District was made over to the Nizám. War, however, again broke out, and on the capture of Seringapatam and death of Tippu (1799), a redistribution was effected — Bellary District being divided between the Nizám and the Peshwá. In 1800, the Peshwá's share was resumed, and the Nizám, in exchange for a subsidiary force of British troops, ceded to the Company the tract acquired by the treaties of 1792 and 1799, including Adoni and the present District of Bellary. The first attempt of the Company to collect the revenue of their new territory provoked a general rebellion of the Poligars, but a force under General Campbell expelled the more turbulent from their estates, and awed the rest into submission. The revenue administration was then taken out of their hands entirely, and the maintenance of armed bodies prohibited, the whole of the ceded Districts being formed into a Commissionership under Colonel Monro as principal Collector (1800), and on his retirement (1807) re-cast into the two *zilás* of Cuddapah and Bellary, with a Collector to each. Since that date the peace of the District has been only twice disturbed. In 1818, the Pindárís made a raid, plundering Harpanhalli and making ineffectual assaults on Kúdlighi and Raidroog. A force was despatched from Bellary, and without difficulty expelled the marauders.

In 1857 there was a rising in Dharwar District, and the *tahsíldár* of Harpanhalli joined the insurgents with a force collected within his jurisdiction. They marched upon Rámandroog, but were overtaken by British troops at Kopala. Their defences were stormed by a wing of the 74th Highlanders, and the disturbance was quelled.

Population.—A Census of the District, taken in 1866-67, gave a total population of 1,304,998, but the enumeration of 1871 showed this to be as much as 40 per cent. in some *táluks* below the actual numbers, the revised total standing at 1,668,006,—males 860,173, females 807,833; or only 93 females to every 100 males. The houses number 351,943 (10 per cent. being returned as uninhabited), and are, from the bare, wind-swept character of the District, more substantially built than in other parts. The number of inhabitants per house averages 5·3, ranging from 7·7 in the Sandhúr estate to 4 in other *táluks*. Of the total population, 1,534,223 persons, or 92 per cent., are Hindus, and 7·6 per cent., or 127,783, Muhammadans. Classified according to worship, the Hindus are nearly equally divided between Sivaites (747,777, or 48·7 per cent.) and Vishnuvites (712,215, or 46·4 per cent.), the small remainder of 4·9 per cent. being returned as 'Lingáyats and others.' Classified according to caste, the Bráhmans aggregate 2·3 per cent. of the Hindu population; Kshattriyas, 4; Vaisyas, 1·9; and Súdras, 95·4. The very small proportion of the upper castes is remarkable. Among the Muhammadans, 94·6 per cent. are Sunis, 1·9 Shiás, ·04 Wahábis, and 3·4 of no specified sect. Arranged according to classes, the Shaiks form 60 per cent. of the whole, and the Sayyids 10 per cent., the rest being returned as Mughals (5801), Patháns (1291), and 'others' (24,386). The Christians number 5545 —1217 being Europeans—and 60 per cent. are Roman Catholics. The once dominant religion of the Jains has only 327 members. The adult male population of 860,173, classified according to occupations, shows 32 per cent. agriculturists, 12·8 per cent. day-labourers, 3·7 in domestic service, 3·7 following trade, 7·6 artisans and engaged in industrial pursuits, and 2 per cent. professional, the remainder, about 40 per cent., appearing as 'unproductive.' The only caste calling for special notice is the vagrant Korachavandlu—*par excellence* the criminal class of the District. They speak a gipsy dialect of their own, and their features bespeak a Tartar origin. In manners and customs they differ radically from all their neighbours. Their houses are of mats woven from water-grass; they eat three times a day, and rats and mice find a regular place in their dietary. They revere neither temples nor Bráhmans, and bury their unmarried dead. Early marriages are unknown among them, and a man can have only one lawful wife.

Villages number 4126, 2541 being classified as *kasbas*, and 1585 as

muzras (attached hamlets). BELLARY, the headquarters of the District, has (including the garrison) 51,766 inhabitants; ADONI, 22,429; 21 other towns have over 5000, and 40 more over 2000 inhabitants each. Roughly, therefore, nearly 80 per cent. of the total population may be considered 'rural.'

Both Kanarese and Telugu are spoken, the former language prevailing in the western, the latter in the eastern *táluks*.

Agriculture.—Of the total area (7,040,000 acres), about one-tenth is barren land, including village and temple sites, tanks, cattle stands, burning-grounds, etc., as well as actually sterile ground; and of the remainder (6,300,000 acres) about one-third, or 2,274,211 acres, is under cultivation and assessed; and about one-fourth more, or 1,429,279 acres, is held *inám*, or under a free grant. The area actually under tillage may therefore be taken at 51 per cent. of the total, and 56 per cent. of the cultivable area. Of the cultivable area not under field cultivation, 500,000 acres are fallow, grazing land, etc., and 56,000 acres, gardens, groves, and orchards. The cultivated area is officially divided into 'wet,' 'dry,' and 'garden' lands. 'Dry' land is that in which there is no artificial irrigation. The chief crops grown are *cholam*, *rágí*, and *korra*, and on these depends the food supply of the masses. 'Wet' lands, or those artificially irrigated, are almost exclusively devoted to rice and sugar-cane. On 'garden' lands are raised cocoa-nut, betel leaf, plantains, areca-nut, wheat, tobacco, chillies, turmeric, vegetables, and fruits. Cotton is grown on dry land, the *regada*, or 'black cotton soil,' being the soil always preferred, the out-turn on the red ferruginous or grey calcareous soils being on the average only 25 per cent. of that on the black soil. A fair crop would be 375 lbs. of uncleaned, or 87 lbs. of cleaned, cotton. Exotic varieties of cotton (Hinghanghát, Orleans, Sea Island, etc.) have been tried, and have uniformly failed. The total acreage under the various crops may be thus estimated—grain crops, 2,687,000 acres; oil-seeds, 103,000; cotton, indigo, and sugar-cane, 537,000. Manure, wherever obtainable, is applied, and the use of green foliage for this purpose is almost universal. No regular rotation of crops obtains, but the principle that two exhausting crops should not be sown successively on the same field is everywhere recognised.

According to the statistics of 1866, there were then in the District 466,000 sheep, and 496,000 horned cattle. The price of field bullocks ranges from £5, 10s. to £10 a pair. Buffaloes, though cheaper, are seldom used. The agricultural implements correspond in character to those in use in Europe, but are all of the most primitive kind. An improvement, however, has been remarked of late in many points. Thus the old cart with solid wheels of stone or wood, the axle revolving with the wheel, is giving place to open wheels, with tire, spokes, and

fixed axle. Again, in outbreaks of cattle distemper, the efficacy of segregation has of late been recognised.

The cultivated area is parcelled out into 127,000 separate holdings, the average holding being about 19 acres of 'dry' and 1·3 acres of 'wet' land; the average assessment is 1s. 3d. per acre of 'dry,' and 7s. 9d. per acre of 'wet' land. Of the total number of landholders, 67,496, or more than half, occupy holdings paying less than £1; only 9000 occupy holdings paying more than £3 per annum. The 'wet' land of the District stands on the official register at 5 per cent. of the total area; the sources of irrigation being tanks of all sizes (1353), river channels (326), spring channels (1804), and wells (24,166).

Prices have for many years been steadily rising; and where money payments obtain, agricultural labourers and ordinary artisans now receive double, and even treble, the wages given before 1850. The field labourers, however, are, as a rule, paid in kind, and the rise of prices, therefore, has not affected them. In other cases, the cultivator class has benefited, the cotton growers notably, many of whom during the American war made considerable fortunes. Rice during 1840-50 averaged 24 lbs. for the shilling, between 1850-60 rose to 20 lbs., and since 1860 has averaged 10 lbs. for the shilling; *cholam* during the same period rose from 58 to 38 and 23 lbs. for the shilling, and *rágí* from 62 to 46 and 25 lbs.; cotton also rose in value from 68 shillings per *candy* to 110 and 292 shillings.

Natural Calamities.—The earliest famine recorded is that of 1792-93. In that year rice sold at 4 lbs. for the shilling, and *cholam*, the staple food of the masses, at 12 lbs. for the shilling. In 1803, prices rose 300 per cent., and wholesale emigration took place. In 1833, the year of the Guntoor famine, when in that District 150,000 persons, out of a total of 500,000, perished from want of food, cholera followed the famine, and in Gooty and Bellary 12,000 persons died during the outbreak. Grain riots occurred in several places, and there was a considerable mortality from starvation. Disasters, local in their incidence, accumulated in Bellary between the years 1851-54. A storm swept over the District, damaging the tanks and irrigation works, in 1851; and before the repairs were completed, heavy and unseasonable rainfalls (1852) ruined the crops. In 1853, the total fall of rain was only 6 inches, and famine set in. One-third of the cattle in the District died, but owing to the prompt recourse to relief works the mortality among the people was not great. In 1866, the failure of the rains doubled the price of food, and relief works being opened, 21,000 persons crowded to them. Cholera broke out, and in many villages the death-rate was so high that the panic-stricken inhabitants ceased to bury their dead. The storm of 1851, above referred to, was of remarkable violence, and, being accompanied by torrents of rain, swept away the towns of Guliem and

Nagaradona, as well as several villages, destroyed the roads and canals, and breached 253 of the largest tanks in the District. Much valuable land was rendered sterile by the deposits of sand, and the loss in property and cattle was enormous. Bellary formed one of the Districts most severely affected in the great famine of 1876-77. It was the centre of an extensive system of organized relief, both in the shape of public works and gratuitous distributions of food.

Commerce and Trade.—Among the agricultural products of the District, cotton takes the first place. In the raw state it is largely exported both to Madras and Bombay, where it is pronounced equal to the best Western growth; and the manufacture of cotton goods—cloth, rope, tape, and carpets—occupies large numbers of the people. Oil-seeds, sugar-cane, hemp, and indigo, all represent important mercantile interests. In woollen goods, the chief articles of export are the blankets of the Kudlighi *táluk*, for which there is a demand all over the Presidency. The woollen carpets, however, cannot compete with those of Ellore and Mysore. Chintz-stamping still forms an important industry in the Gooty *táluk*, where also there is a considerable manufacture of glass bangles. Iron smelting is carried on in the Hospet *táluk*. Earth-salt is manufactured at 800 different places in the District, the annual out-turn being valued at £14,000.

The Madras Railway (north-west line) runs just within the eastern boundary of the District for nearly half its extent, passing the towns of Tádpatri, Gooty, and Adoni, a branch line midway being carried due west to the town of Bellary. The existing road communication is insufficient for the wants of the District. Two main roads traverse it—one from Bangalore to Secunderabad (Sikandarabad), entering the District near Kodikonda, and leaving it near Gooty; the other from Madras, through Bellary to Bombay. A District road cess, levied at the rate of about ¼d. in every 2s. of land revenue, provides for the up-keep of the inferior roads that feed the trunk lines. The principal ferries over the Tungabhadra are at Hampságra, Halhalli, and Madaveram, and over the Hugri at Permadavanhalli and Moka. The right of ferrying is rented out at about £900 per annum, which supplements the regular road fund. Numerous local funds contribute to the District revenue. The 'public bungalow fund,' derived from the fees paid by travellers for accommodation in the public rest-houses; the pound fund and the *choultry* fund, derived from economies in the administration of the resources of endowed charities, sufficiently denote the institutions of the District. There are no newspapers nor private printing presses in Bellary.

Administration.—Until 1808, when Bellary was first recognised as a separate District, its history forms part of that of the Ceded Provinces generally. With the rest it suffered throughout all the changes of

government from anarchy and extortionate revenue collectors. In 1800, when the District was ceded to the Company, it was found that 30,000 armed men, in the pay of 80 different chiefs, were quartered upon the people, and maintained entirely by forcible requisitions from the cultivating classes. Colonel Monro, the first Collector, surveyed the Ceded Provinces, Bellary included; and, assessing the lands at something below the average of the collections made by the Mysore rulers and the Nizám, settled for each field directly with the actual cultivator. The revenue collections from the Bellary *táluks*, during the nine years in which this system obtained, averaged annually £227,142. In 1808, the Ceded Tracts were divided into the Districts of Bellary and Cuddapah; and when the system of triennial leases was introduced in the following year, the revenue collections in Bellary rose to £249,514 per annum. In 1812, the triennial leases were changed to decennial, the result being at the end of the ten years a decreased average of receipts, £243,207,—a decrease owing to the general reduction of assessment directed in 1820. In 1822, the original system of settling with the cultivators direct was reverted to, and a further general decrease of assessments introduced. The result was a further reduction of the average of land revenue, pure and simple, between the years 1822 and 1830 to £207,373 per annum; between 1830 and 1840 it rose to £292,000; between 1840 and 1850, fell again to £221,000; and between 1850 and 1869, rose to £336,000.

Other sources of Imperial revenue (as distinguished from local funds) are *abkári*, or excise, yielding on an average £56,848 per annum; stamps, £16,448; salt, £1180; and income tax. Under the name of *motarfa* this last tax had from an early period been levied from the non-agricultural classes, and being continued under British administration until 1837, yielded, on the average, £28,206 per annum. In 1860, *motarfa* was formally abolished, and the income tax imposed. This in turn was abandoned in 1865, between which date and 1869 various substitutes, in the shape of licence and certificate taxes, have been tried. In 1869 the income tax was again established, and the annual receipts from this source were £5700, and was continued at various rates till 1873.

Civil justice is administered by four grades of courts,—the village *munsífs*, 2076 in number; the 7 District *munsífs*; the Sadr Amins; and the court of the civil judge. The last is also the sessions court for criminal cases; subordinate to it are the village magistrates, the subordinate magistrates, and the full power European magistracy. For the confinement of prisoners there is a sub-jail in each *táluk*, with one District jail at Bellary. The last is capable of holding 400 prisoners.

The village police of the District aggregates a total strength of 2249. The regular police force numbers 1382 officers and men of all

ranks, being in the proportion of 1 constable to every 966 of the population. The municipalities are 4 in number—BELLARY, ADONI, GOOTY, and ANANTAPUR—with annual incomes of £8000, £2000, £700, and £2000 respectively, expended yearly to almost the full amount in local improvements. Education of an elementary kind is carried on in the *piál* or village schools, one or more being established in every considerable hamlet. For higher-class teaching, grants in aid are given to 10 schools, while 2 Anglo-vernacular and 1 Provincial school at Bellary with a daily attendance of 320 are supported by Government, the fees of the scholars covering only about a third of the expenses. The London Missionary Society and the Roman Catholic Church have old-established missions in the District, maintaining between them several schools and two asylums for the poor.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is extremely dry, the average annual rainfall being only 17 inches. The daily temperature ranges from 67° to 83° in November and December, and rises to an average of 93° during April, the yearly mean from January to October inclusive being 84°. Since 1820, eighteen years have been officially recorded as seasons of epidemic cholera, the mortality in 1845 being 18,000, and in 1866 over 20,000. Fever exists in an epidemic form, but in 1834, 1841, and 1865-66, the mortality from this cause was especially high. Ophthalmia is common, owing to the dryness of the atmosphere and the glare from the granite rocks. Cattle-disease was epidemic in 1842, 1843, and 1844; occurring again in 1847, 1848, and 1849. In 1857, the loss of cattle from murrain was very great, as also in 1868. Gratuitous medical advice and attendance is provided for the poorer classes by the civil dispensaries at Gooty, Hospet, Adoni, Anantapur, and Bellary—the expenses being defrayed partly by local subscription, but mainly by municipal grants. These dispensaries, as a rule, are only resorted to by the poor after charms and exorcisms have failed. The mortuary returns for the District during the three years ending 1870 give an average mortality of 21,000, or about 13 per thousand on the total population.

Bellary.—*Táluk* of Bellary District, Madras. Situated between lat. 14° 57′ and 15° 42′ N., and long. 76° 44′ and 77° 16′ E.; area, 985 square miles; containing 195 towns and villages, with 37,814 houses, and a total population in 1871 of 182,244 souls, viz. Hindus, 153,621 (including Sivaites 87,728, Vishnuvites 66,686, Lingáyats and 'others' 5207), and Muhammadans, 24,119 (being Sunnis 22,693, Shiás and 'others' 1426). Revenue in 1871-72, £39,390, of which the land contributed £27,507, and excise £6620. The *táluk* lies in the angle formed by the Tungabhadra and Hugri rivers, a level expanse of black cotton soil. The Copper Mountain, so called from the mines worked by Haidar

Alí, and the Bellary Rock, on which the fort is built, are the only important physical features. Two-thirds of the total area, or 434,900 acres, are under cultivation, of which 6702 acres are artificially irrigated. The tanks, 5 in number, are all insignificant. The channels from the rivers irrigate only 4000 acres, and the normal rainfall is very light. This *táluk*, therefore, is considered one of the most arid in the District. The chief towns are BELLARY, SIRAGUPA, HIREHAL, KODUTANNI, KARGOD, and KENCHENGOD.

Bellary (*Valahari*).—Chief town of Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 15° 8′ 51″ N., long. 76° 57′ 15″ E.; houses, 11,758; pop. (1871), 51,766, being 32,228 Hindus, 15,268 Muhammadans, 4270 Christians (including the European garrison); municipal income (1875-76), £6000; incidence of taxation per head, 1s. 1½d. Being the headquarters of the District Administration, and of a brigade of the Madras army, Bellary possesses all the public establishments and offices pertaining to a civil and military station of the first class. Situated on an arid plain that stretches from the foot of a mass of granitic rock, 450 feet in height and about 2 miles in circuit, the town is defended by two lines of fortifications. The upper fort crowns the rock, and being inaccessible in the face of even the smallest force, may be considered impregnable by assault. The lower fort, containing the arsenal, guards the eastern base. On this side stand several public buildings, including the post office and commissariat stores. Southward stretches the native quarter, Cowle Bázár, Bruce-pettah, and Mellor-pettah, containing the finest military market in Southern India, and subject to cantonment discipline. A large tank, nearly 3 miles in circumference when quite full, but which, being very shallow, is as a rule dry for a part of every year, lies on this side of the rock. On the west are grouped the regimental lines, substantial buildings with accommodation for two European and two native regiments; the present force (1877) consists of one regiment of British infantry, a battery of artillery, two regiments of Native infantry, and one of Native cavalry—total strength, 2809. On the northern side stand the civil lines, with the public offices, churches, dispensary, and school, the railway station and telegraph office. By rail, Madras is 305 miles distant, and the returns for 1875 show a traffic on this branch of the value of £54,670. A project for connecting the line with Karwar on the western coast is under consideration. The climate being very dry (in consequence of the winds passing over such an extent of heated plain), Bellary is considered a healthy station; but the heat is great, the mean registered in April being 93°, and the normal annual rainfall amounts to only 16½ inches. Of late years water has been scarce, and fallen to a lower level in the wells. The old springs seem to be drying up, and much of the water now produced is too brackish for use, owing to the presence of chloride

of soda and carbonate of lime in large proportions in the soil. Trees are grown with greater difficulty, and gardens are becoming fewer. The opening of the railway has given an impetus, however, to the cotton traffic and the trade of the town. No local manufactures of importance exist. The history of Bellary dates from the reign of Krishna Ráya of Vijayanagar. A dependant of that court built a fort here; and his descendants, paying an annual tribute, held it for many years. Even after the battle of Talikot, when Bellary had passed under the rule of the Muhammadan dynasty of Bijápur, they continued in semi-independent possession. In 1650, the Rájá of Bellary defeated the descendant of the Vijayanagar Rájás, who had claimed tribute from him, and for a century the feud continued between the two families. But the District then passed, with its neighbours, into the hands of the Nizám; and Bellary was given as part of the estate of Adoni to Basálat Jang, the Nizám's brother. Being called upon for tribute, the Rájá rashly appealed for help to Haidar Alí, who at once advanced upon the place by forced marches, defeated the Nizám's troops in a battle at the foot of the rock, and seized the fort for himself. The present fortifications were built by a staff of French engineers—tradition adding, that after the new citadel had been completed, Haidar Alí hanged the French engineers at the gate, as he found that his fort could be commanded by a neighbouring rock higher than the site selected. Till 1792, Tippu Sultán remained in possession, but in that year his stronghold fell by the partition treaty to the Nizám, by whom it was ceded in 1800 to the British Government.

Bellavi.—Municipal village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 25′ N., long. 77° 5′ E.; pop. (1871), 1663; municipal revenue (1874-75), £24; rate of taxation, 3d. per head. The streets are wide, with uniformly built shops. At the fair held weekly on Monday, trade is carried on to the value of £2000. Great mart for export products.

Belo.—*Táluk* of Kurrachee District, Sind; between 24° 26′ 45″ and 25° 0′ 15″ N. lat., and 68° 1′ 30″ and 68° 16′ E. long.; pop. (1872), 28,471; area, 294 square miles; revenue for 1873-74, £8539, being £6900 Imperial and £1633 local.

Belo.—Village in the *táluk* of the same name, Kurrachee District, Sind. Lat. 24° 44′ N., long. 68° 8′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 691—Hindus, 332, chiefly Lohános and Bhátias; Muhammadans, 359, chiefly Sayyids and Muhánas.

Belsand Kalan.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the old Bághmatí river, about 27 miles from Muzaffarpur on the Kantái and Sítámarhí road. Lat. 26° 26′ 48″ N., long. 85° 26′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 2971, comprising 2441 Hindus, 519 Muhammadans, and 11 Christians. Indigo factory, a vernacular school, and a police station.

Belur.—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore State. Area, 476 square miles; pop. (1871), 64,697; land revenue (1874-75), £11,587, or 5s. 9d. per cultivated acre.

Belur.—Municipal village in Hassan District, Mysore State; on right bank of Yagáchi river; 23 miles by road north-west of Hassan. Lat. 13° 9′ 45″ N., long. 75° 54′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 2989; municipal revenue (1874-75), £76; rate of taxation, 6d. per head. An ancient city, known in the Puránas and on inscriptions as *Velapura*, and locally regarded as the *Dakhin Váranási* or Southern Benares. It owes its sanctity to the celebrated temple of Chenna and Kesava, adorned with carvings and sculptures from the master hand of Jakanácharjya. This building was erected and endowed by a king of the Hoysala Ballála dynasty, on the occasion of his conversion from the Jain faith to the [worship] of Vishnu, about the middle of the 12th century. The annual [fes]tival, held for five days in April, is attended by 5000 persons. Head[qu]arters of *táluk* of the same name.

Ben.—A river in Hoshiárpur and Jullundur (Jalandhar) Districts, [Pu]njab. Known as the East or White (*Safed*) Ben, to distinguish it from another stream of the same name in Kapurthala territory. Formed by the confluence of torrents from the Siwálik Hills; skirts for 35 miles the boundary between Hoshiárpur and Jullundur, during which it receives at right angles numerous affluents from the hills to the north-east; turns westward near the town of Malakpur; follows a serpentine course through the plain, and falls into the Sutlej (Satlaj) 4 miles above its junction with the Beas (Biás). Crossed by bridge on Grand Trunk Road 3 miles from Jullundur cantonment; fordable in cold weather. Banks too steep to admit of irrigation by overflow, but watering practised by means of Persian wheels. The West or Black (*Siyah*) Ben also rises in the Siwáliks, runs through Hoshiárpur and the Kapurthala State, and falls into the Beas 10 miles above its junction with the Sutlej. Bridge on Grand Trunk Road beyond Diálpur in Kapurthala.

Ben.—Small stream in Gurdáspur District, Punjab, formed by the junction of several brooks enclosing the town of Sukhuchak. Passes to east of Shakargarh, crosses roads from Gurdáspur to Shakargarh and Siálkot, and falls into the Ravi almost opposite Dera Nának. Length about 25 miles. Slender thread of water in dry weather; large volume during rains. Much used for purposes of irrigation.

Benares (*Banáras*).—A Division under a Commissioner in the North-Western Provinces, comprising the six Districts of AZAMGARH, MIRZAPUR, BENARES, GHAZIPUR, GORAKHPUR, and BASTI, each of which see separately; lying between 23° 52′ 15″ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 82° 9′ 45″ and 84° 40′ 15″ E. long.; area, 18,314 square miles; pop. (1872), 8,179,307 souls.

Benares.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 8′ 30″ and 25° 34′ 30″ N. lat., and between 82° 42′ and 83° 35′ 30″ E. long.; area, 996 square miles; population in 1872, 794,039 souls. Benares is a District in the Division of the same name, and is bounded on the north by Gházipur and Jaunpur; on the west and south by Mirzapur; and on the east by Sháhabad in Bengal. The administrative headquarters are at the city of BENARES.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Benares forms part of the alluvial valley deposited by the river Ganges, and occupies an irregular parallelogram on either bank of the sacred stream. The surface consists of a level plain, with a gentle upward slope on each side from the central depression; and the general monotony of its cultivated fields is only broken by the ravines of two tiny streamlets—the Barna in the west, and the Nand in the north—and by the deep gorges and precipitous cliffs of the Karamnása on the south-eastern boundary. The Ganges enters the District as a very large river, augmented at the point of leaving Allahabad by the Jumna (Jamuná), and joined 16 miles below Benares city by the waters of the Gumti. Before reaching the confines of Gházipur, it presents a magnificent expanse of 4 miles in breadth during the rainy season. The Gumti also flows through the District for a course of some 22 miles; while the Karamnása skirts the south-eastern border, a heavy stream after rains, but almost dry during the hot months, though subject, like other hill rivers, to sudden flushes, which produce considerable inundations. The only other permanent water-course is that of the Barna Nadi, whose bed would run dry in the cold weather were it not prevented by a dam thrown across the slender stream about a mile above its confluence with the Ganges. Three small marshy lakes, known as the Báripur, Koth, and Kowár *jhils*, occupy hollows in the northern plain. The District has no forests or other waste lands of any importance, every available acre having been long brought under cultivation, and planted with a rich luxuriance of cereals or sugar-cane; while tiny hamlets lie thickly scattered in every direction over the face of the country. A few patches of barren *usár*, or saline efflorescence, occur here and there among the uplands, but much less commonly than in the Districts farther west; while jungle is only to be found along the ravines of the minor rivers. Beasts of prey are consequently rare, but hares, squirrels, porcupines, and monkeys abound; and wild-fowl congregate in numbers on the lakes and rivers.

History.—Although the city of Benares, the metropolis of Hinduism, can trace its origin to the very earliest period of Aryan colonization in India, yet the District at large can scarcely be said to possess any separate history of its own until the middle of the 18th century. The

antiquities and ancient annals of Benares city itself will be found under the proper heading. During the Musalmán period, the District was ruled by the Nawábs of Oudh, till ceded with Gházipur to the British in 1775. The ancestors of the present Mahárájá of Benares had already risen to importance under the Oudh Wazírs. In 1737, Mansa Rám, the founder of the family greatness, acquired possession of a fortress in Jaunpur District, and next year obtained for his son, Balwant Sinh, the title of Rájá, and the three *sarkárs* of Jaunpur, Chanár, and Benares. Mansa Rám died in 1740; but Rájá Balwant Sinh successfully followed up his father's policy. Through a long course of years he endeavoured to make himself practically independent of the Wazír, his lord-paramount, by building or seizing a line of fortresses on a strong strategical basis south of the Ganges. Step by step he acquired new strips of territory, and strengthened each acquisition by fresh military works. In 1763, the Rájá joined the Emperor Sháh Alam and the Wazír Shujá-ud-daulá in their invasion of Bengal. After the disastrous battle of Baxar, however, he went over to the English camp, and prudently sought the protection of the conquerors. By the agreement of 1764, Balwant Sinh's estates were transferred from Oudh to the English; but the transfer was disapproved by the Court of Directors, and in 1765 the Benares territory was restored to Oudh, the Wazír consenting to guarantee the Rájá in the quiet enjoyment of his possessions. Balwant Sinh died in 1770, and the Wazír endeavoured to use the opportunity thus afforded him of dispossessing his powerful vassals. The English, however, compelled him to recognise the succession of Chait Sinh, an illegitimate son of the late Rájá. Five years later, the Wazír ceded the sovereignty of the Benares estate to the British, who confirmed Chait Sinh in his holding by *sanad*, dated April 15, 1776. The succeeding events have been too widely known, and too hotly discussed, to need more than brief recapitulation. In 1778 a tribute of 5 *lákhs* was levied upon Chait Sinh for the maintenance of a battalion of *sipáhís*; similar demands were made in 1779 and 1780. In the latter year, our power in India being then threatened with a simultaneous attack on the part of Haidar Alí, the Nizám, and the Marhattás, the Governor-General, Warren Hastings, called upon the Rájá to furnish a cavalry contingent of 1500 men. The Rájá returned evasive answers, but did not send a single trooper. For this conduct the Governor-General determined to inflict upon him a fine of 50 *lákhs*, or £500,000. In August 1781, Hastings arrived at Benares, and finding Chait Sinh still insubordinate, gave orders that he should be arrested in his own house. A riot occurred, the little body of British troops was attacked and easily massacred, the Rájá fled to one of his strongholds, and a general rising took place in the city. Hastings, shut up with his slender retinue in Benares, found himself in

a most critical position, from which he only extricated himself by flight to Chanár. The Rájá remained in open rebellion till the end of September, when the British troops collected and dispersed his followers. The Governor-General then returned to Benares, deposed Chait Sinh, and recognised his nephew Mahipnaráyan as Rájá. Chait Sinh retired to Gwalior, where he died in 1810. The criminal administration of the whole estate, and the civil administration of the city, were taken from the Rájá and assumed by the English. Mahipnaráyan died in 1795, and was succeeded by his son, Uditnaráyan. On the death of the latter, in 1835, his demesne descended to his nephew, the present Mahárájá, Srí Prasád Náráyan. (*See* BENARES ESTATE.) When Wazír Alí, Nawáb of Oudh, was deposed by the British in 1798, he received orders to live at Benares. In January 1799 he attacked Mr. Cherry, the Governor-General's agent, and murdered him, with two other officers. The magistrate, whom he proceeded to assail, defended himself in his house till the cavalry arrived from Bitábar and rescued him. Wazír Alí escaped at the time, but was given up and confined for life in Calcutta. From this period English rule was never seriously disturbed till the Mutiny of 1857. News of the outbreak at Meerut reached Benares on the 15th of May. The 37th Native Infantry at once became disorderly, and it was determined to disarm them on the 1st of June. They replied to the order with a volley, but when it was returned they shortly dispersed. The Síkhs and Irregular Cavalry joined the mutineers. The civil officers, however, held the mint and the treasure, and the rebellion went no further. Parties of Europeans passing up from Calcutta to the north-west sufficed to keep the city quiet; though in the District some disturbances took place, and Mr. Moore, the joint collector, was murdered at Gopiganj in Mirzapur District. Early in June the Rájputs of Jaunpur marched to attack Benares, but on the 17th they were cut to pieces by an English force. Next day the erection of the fort at Rájghat was commenced, on a site which commands the whole city, and no breach of the peace afterwards occurred.

Population.—Benares is one of those over-populated Districts where the number of inhabitants has shown a decrease since the railway opened, chiefly due to emigration towards other Districts where labour is in greater demand. The Census of 1853 returned the total population at 851,757 souls; that of 1865 gave the numbers as 799,421 souls, while the enumeration of 1872 showed only 794,039 souls. These figures exhibit a decrease of 57,718 persons, or 7·2 per cent., in the nineteen years. Nevertheless, the District is still by far the most thickly populated in the North-Western Provinces, having a density of 797 persons to the square mile; while Jaunpur, which ranks next, has only 659; Ghápur, 621, and no other District as many as 600. The

Census of 1872, taken over an area of 996 square miles, disclosed the following results :—Total population, 794,039 souls ; number of villages, 1919 ; number of houses, 156,200 ; persons per square mile, 797 ; villages per square mile, 1·9 ; houses per square mile, 156 ; persons per village, 414 ; persons per house, 5. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 406,344 ; females, 387,355 ; proportion of males, 51·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 134,664 ; females, 120,072 ; total, 254,736, or 32·09 per cent. of the whole population : above 12 years—males, 271,680 ; females, 267,283 ; total, 538,963, or 67·91 per cent. of the whole population. As regards the religious distinctions of the people, the Hindus numbered 714,510, the Musalmáns 78,844, and the Christians 345. These figures show 90 per cent. of Hindus as against 10 per cent. of Muhammadans. The various castes were represented as follows :—90,972 Bráhmans, 48,169 Rájputs, 20,125 Banias, 71,951 Ahírs, 83,273 Chamárs, 14,769 Káyasths, and 74,437 Kurmís. The District contains only two towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls — namely, Benares city, 175,188, and Rámnagar, 11,953. Except these two, the latter of which is rather a suburb than a separate town, there is no place of any importance in the District, and the dense population lives in small scattered hamlets, thickly and evenly dotted over the Gangetic plain. This condition well illustrates the difference between the Doáb and the eastern basin of the great river. The upper tract of country has its inhabitants collected together in considerable towns, once walled and fortified, which afforded them protection in the days of Marhattá or Afghán incursions ; while in the more peaceful lower region the population is equally distributed over the cultivated soil, only a small fraction being gathered together in large cities. The Mahárájá of Benares has a palace at Rámnagar, 2 miles above Benares, on the opposite or southern side. Colossal Buddhist remains exist at SARNATH.

Agriculture.—The Benares District has the smallest area of any in the North-Western Provinces, except the Tarái ; its total extent being returned in 1872 at 996 square miles, of which 726 are cultivated. Most of the soil consists of a rich clay, more or less mixed with sand, and usually very fertile. The course of tillage is that common to the whole upper basin of the Ganges. The *kharíf* or autumn crops are sown after the first rain in June, and harvested in October and November. Rice may even be gathered in August, but cotton does not ripen for picking till February. *Bájra*, *joár*, and other common food grains form the remaining staples of this harvest. The *rabi* or spring crops are sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other pulses. The harvests are a little earlier in Benares than in the Doáb and Rohil-

khand Districts, owing to the dampness and comparative warmth of the winter, and the early commencement of the rainy season. The chief crops of the District comprise sugar-cane, Indian corn, barley, wheat, peas, indigo, and rice. *Moth* and *pátsan* are sown with other crops, but not separately. Manure is employed, where obtainable, for both crops, and land lies fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. The same field is seldom planted for two harvests within a single year, the chief exception being in the case of rice lands, which often bear a second crop of some other staple. Where small proprietors own the soil, each holder generally tills his own plot in person; but, as a rule, the greater portion is let out to cultivating tenants. The whole District is permanently settled, and the landlords are therefore unusually powerful and wealthy. They can raise their rents without restriction, and the number of tenants-at-will grows daily, as the older occupancy-holders die out for want of heirs, or lose their privileges from inability to pay the rent. In the city of Benares, owing to the wealth of its rich traders or bankers, and the constant influx of opulent pilgrims, the standard of living ranks decidedly higher than elsewhere in the North-Western Provinces; and the presence of a large Bengali element, bringing with it the habits and ideas of comfort which prevail in Calcutta, does much to keep up the tendency in that direction; but the crowded peasantry of the country *parganás* live in extreme poverty, and have little or nothing upon which they can fall back in seasons of distress. Wages and prices have risen of late years. In 1877, coolies and unskilled labourers received from $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to $3\frac{3}{4}$d. per diem; agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$d. to 3d. per diem; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. per diem. Women obtained about one-fifth less than men, while children were paid from one-half to one-third the wages of adults. The following were the average prices-current of food grains in 1876:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; rice, 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt.; *joár*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Although the Benares District suffers like its neighbours from drought, with its natural consequence, famine, yet it appears to occupy an intermediate position between the centres of distress in Upper India and Bengal, so as to be less severely affected by scarcity than either of the regions to the east and west. In 1770, Benares was visited by famine in common with all the other Districts east of Allahabad, including those of Bahár. In 1783, the dearth pressed chiefly upon the western country; but Benares suffered somewhat, like all the tract to the west of the Karamnása, and grain riots occurred in the city. In 1803, it became necessary to offer a bounty of 15 rupees (£1, 10s.) on every 100 *maunds* of grain (about $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons) imported from Bengal into Benares or Allahabad; yet the scarcity was

not so severe as in Rohilkhand and the west. The great famine of 1837-38, which ravaged the whole North-Western Provinces, fell upon Benares with great severity, though less fiercely than in the Doáb. The dearth of 1860-61, which proved so fatal in the Upper Doáb and the Agra Division, did not reach Benares; while the Bengal famine of 1874 hardly touched the confines of the District.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of the District centres almost entirely in the city (*q.v.*). A considerable trade passes through from Jaunpur, Azamgarh, Gorakhpur, and Basti. Two lines of railroad traverse the District throughout the greater portion of its length. The East Indian Railway runs through the *parganás* south of the Ganges, with stations at Sakaldiha and Mughal Sarái; and sends off a branch line, 6 miles in length, which ends on the river bank just opposite Benares. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has its terminus at Benares, on the north bank of the Ganges, and runs north-west for 20 miles in this District, with stations at Seopur, Bábatpur, and Phúlpur. The Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Delhi also traverses the District from end to end, with a length of 44 miles, crossing the Ganges at Benares by a bridge of boats. Other good roads connect the city with Jaunpur, Ahraura, Sakaldiha, and Gházipur.

Administration.—Benares is the headquarters of a Commissioner, and the seat of a civil and session judgeship, which does not include any other District. The Commissioner of Benares is also agent for the Viceroy in his official relations with the Mahárájá of Benares, and *ex officio* superintendent of the BENARES FAMILY DOMAINS. The ordinary administrative staff of the District includes a Collector-magistrate, 2 Joint Magistrates, 1 Assistant, and 1 Deputy, besides the usual medical, fiscal, and constabulary establishment. The whole amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised in the District in 1876, amounted to £172,950. The District regular police force had a total strength of 989 men in 1875, maintained at a cost of £12,005; being at the rate of 1 policeman to every square mile and to every 802 persons of the population; while the cost of maintenance had an incidence of 4d. per head of the inhabitants. Benares possesses two places of confinement—the central prison and the District jail. The former contained in 1875 an average number of 1895 criminals, all of whom were males; but these were recruited from all the Districts composing the Benares Division. The District jail included, during the same year, a daily average of 580 prisoners, of whom 485 were males and 95 females. The average cost per head amounted to £3, 0s. 10½d., and the average earnings of each inmate to 12s. The postal establishment comprises 13 imperial and 2 provincial post offices, and the telegraph is in operation at all the stations on both railways. Education was carried on in 1875 by 490 schools, whose united rolls gave a total of 14,274 pupils; being at the

rate of 1 school to every 2·03 square miles, and a percentage of 1·79 scholars on the whole population. The cost of the educational machinery amounted to £17,140, of which £11,406 was paid from provincial funds, and £5734 from local sources. For fiscal and administrative purposes the District is divided into 2 *tahsíls* and 19 *parganás.* The only municipality is that of Benares, which had an income, in 1875-76, of £25,032—from taxes, £11,837, or 1s. 7½d. per head of population (187,341) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Benares is one of the hottest and dampest in the North-Western Provinces. No really cold weather diversifies the year as in the upper country beyond Allahabad; and since the hot west winds have lost their force before reaching this District, *tattis* or grass mats fail to perform their function of cooling the air by evaporation. The temperature more nearly resembles that of Lower Bengal than that of the North-Western plains in general. The mean monthly thermometrical readings ran as follows in 1871:—January 64°, February 71°, March 79°, April 87°, May 88°, June 88°, July 83°, August 83°, September 82°, October 80°, November 72°, December 62°. The average total rainfall for the eleven years from 1860 to 1870 was 40·8 inches; the maximum during this period being 57·7 inches in 1861-62, and the minimum 21·6 inches in 1860-61. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1875 was 14,839, or 18·69 per 1000 of the population. The average death-rate per 1000 during the previous six years was 17·74. The District contains 7 charitable dispensaries—6 in the city and suburbs, and 1 at Chandauli, on the south bank. In 1875 they afforded relief to a total of 75,702 persons.

Benares (or more correctly, *Váránasi* or *Banáras*).—City in Benares District, North-Western Provinces, and administrative headquarters of the District and Division. Lat. 25° 18′ 31″ N., long. 83° 3′ 4″ E.; area, 3141 acres; population in 1872, 175,188 souls, comprising 133,549 Hindus, 41,374 Muhammadans, and 265 Christians and others. Benares, the religious metropolis of the Hindu faith, and first city of the North-Western Provinces in population and importance, lies on the left or northern bank of the river Ganges, about 120 miles below its junction with the Jumna, at an elevation of 253 feet above sea level; distant from Calcutta 421 miles north-west, from Allahabad 74 miles east, and from Delhi 466 miles south-east. The Ganges forms a bay or crescent-shaped reach in front of the city, thus permitting the eye to take in at a single sweep the long line of its picturesque *ghâts* and splendid temples. The town is built of Chanár freestone, and consists of winding labyrinths and narrow alleys, lined by temples, mosques, or palaces, and crowded with pilgrims and busy citizens, camels, asses, horses, and sacred bulls. But though the view is everywhere obstructed within the city itself, along the bank of the Ganges is unrolled a mag-

nificent panorama of palaces, capped by domes, minarets, and sacred buildings, in every variety of oriental architecture. The people spend a large part of their time praying, bathing, or lounging by the water-side. The *gháts* are crowded with *fakírs* and other ash-besprinkled and almost naked ascetics, practising their devotions and life-long austerities. The city can be approached either by land or water. The Ganges affords a navigable highway for large steamships; the East Indian Railway has a station opposite Rájghat, in connection with which a bridge of boats conveys passengers across the sacred river; the Oudh and Rohilkhand line gives access to the city from the north and west; while the Grand Trunk Road and other good metalled ways lead over bridges on the Ganges or the Barna from every quarter. No walls or fortifications enclose the holy city. During the Mutiny, a fort erected at Rájghat overawed the disaffected section of the populace; but this has now been abandoned, owing to alleged unhealthiness, though its position on an eminence commanding the passage of the river makes it the natural key of Benares and the surrounding country.

History.—From the earliest period of Aryan colonization in India, a city appears to have existed at the junction of the Barna with the Ganges. The name of Váránasí, converted into Banáras by transposition of the liquid consonants, frequently occurs in early Sanskrit literature. In the 6th century B.C., Gautama Buddha, on the eve of promulgating his new religion, fixed upon Benares as the first station for preaching the doctrine of *nirvána*, and took up his residence at SARNATH. Even before that time, Benares had apparently acquired a reputation as the most sacred city of the Hindu creed; it then became, for 800 years, the headquarters of Buddhism; and about the 4th century after Christ it once more reverted to the ancient faith, whose metropolis it remains to the present day. Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century, found the kingdom of Benares divided between the two creeds. He mentions the existence of 30 Buddhist monasteries and 100 Hindu temples. Sankar Acharjya, the great opponent of Buddhism and champion of the Sivaite sect, lived in Benares in the 7th century. After the annihilation of the rival faith, which seems to have been stamped out with fire and sword throughout all Upper India, the Sivaite Hindus rebuilt a considerable portion of the city, shifting its site from the northern bank of the Barna to its present position on the angle enclosed between the southern shore and the Ganges. Benares has shown a tendency to shift its position widely in different directions from age to age. The oldest town occupied the site of Sárnáth, where colossal Buddhist remains still lie thickly scattered over the ground. At a later period, the centre of the city stood apparently north of the Barna. Mausoleums, mosques, *dargahs*, and Hindu temples, now in ruins, stud the vacant space to the

north of the present city; thus showing that up till the Muhammadan period Benares lay close to the south bank of the Barna; while the modern frontage faces the Ganges alone, leaving an empty suburb to the north-east. Most of the existing buildings date no further back than the reign of Akbar. Muhammad Ghori took Benares in 1194 A.D., and the various Musalmán dynasties continued to hold it for 600 years. Nearly all the edifices in the city which can lay claim to any antiquity have been appropriated to Muhammadan purposes. The Musalmáns converted all the larger temples into mosques or tombs, and destroyed or mutilated the remainder, using their walls as quarries for building material. Alá-ud-dín boasted that he had razed to the ground 1000 shrines in Benares alone. The existing Hindu buildings are generally small, and often destitute of architectural merit or ornamental detail, owing apparently to the stringency of the Muhammadan rule. During the 18th century, Benares fell into the hands of the Oudh Wazírs, under whom a family of local Rájás established their power in the surrounding country. The story of their rise to authority, the rebellion and deposition of Chait Sinh, and the subsequent fortunes of their house, belong rather to the wider history of BENARES DISTRICT than to the special annals of the city. Benares was ceded to the British, with the remainder of Chait Sinh's domain, in 1775, and a Resident was appointed to watch the interests of the new Government. Wazír Alí of Oudh, after his deposition, was compelled to live at Benares; and in 1799 he attacked and murdered Mr. Cherry, the Resident, with two other officers. The Wazír escaped for the time, but was afterwards captured and deported to Calcutta. During the Mutiny of 1857 a serious outbreak took place at Benares. On receipt of the news from Meerut, the 37th Native Infantry became mutinous, and resisted an order to disarm. The Síkhs and Irregular Cavalry joined the mutineers; but the whole body dispersed after being fired upon. The Europeans then fortified the mint, in which the civil officers took up their abode. The frequent passage of troops from Calcutta proved sufficient to overawe the mob of the city.

General Appearance, Architecture, etc.—Benares, or Kási, lies on the west bank of the Ganges, which flows nearly north and south as it passes before the city. The native town skirts the sacred river, with a constant succession of stone steps and ornamental façades. West of this crowded labyrinth stands the suburb of Síghra, the seat of the chief missionary institutions. Northward, towards the Barna, the Sikraul cantonments and parade ground stretch away to the bank of the smaller stream, which is here crossed by two bridges of stone and iron respectively. South of the Barna lie the church, post office, and court-house; the civil station occupies the northern bank, while beyond comes a vacant cantonment, formerly used by European cavalry.

Along the Ganges front a precipitous cliff rises to a height of 100 feet, and the numerous *gháts* descend by long flights from this elevation to the level of the stream below. Here and there a handsome mosque or picturesque temple, built close to the water's edge, breaks their line. The buildings on the edge of the cliff, being for the most part five or six storeys high, crowned with pinnacles or towers, add greatly to the impressiveness of the effect. Within the city, the streets contain many handsome houses, substantially built and elaborately decorated; but their narrow, dirty, and crowded state usually disappoints the visitor, after the high expectations aroused by the view from the river. The upper storeys often project beyond the lower floor, and small bridges thrown across the roadway occasionally connect the houses on opposite sides of the street. To prevent inspection from the neighbouring fronts, the windows have been made extremely small. The façades are often painted in fantastic patterns, to represent the mythical episodes of Hindu theology. During the fine season most of the inhabitants sleep on the roofs of their houses. The town bristles with religious buildings, Hindu and Muhammadan. The temples of the ancient faith are set down at 1454, most of which are diminutive shrines, while the Musalmáns possess 272 mosques. Besides these regular places of worship, every niche, corner, and empty space upon the *gháts* and in the walls of houses is occupied by some religious image, mutilated statue, *linga*, or square-hewn sacred stone. Rájá Mán Sinh of Jeypore once presented 100,000 temples to the city in a single day. The chief buildings are too numerous to be fully noticed, but a few among them deserve special attention. The temple at Durgá Kund, in the southern extremity of the city, has a great society of sacred monkeys attached to its precincts. It was erected by Rání Bhawání during the last century, and is remarkable for its simple and graceful architecture. The Dasásamedh *ghát* forms one of the five sacred places of pilgrimage in Benares. Rájá Jái Sinh's observatory, a handsome and substantial building, erected in 1693, overlooks the Mán Mandil *ghát*. Its founder reformed the calendar for the Emperor Muhammad Sháh. Close to the same spot stands the Nepálese temple, whose quaint and picturesque architecture unexpectedly betrays the influence of Chinese models. Surrounded by pure Hindu buildings, it strikes the eye at once alike by its novelty and by its graceful workmanship. A little above the observatory, the burning *ghát*, where the bodies of Hindus are reduced to ashes, leads down to the Ganges by a narrow, confined pathway, with numerous slabs of stone set up on end in honour of widows who have performed *sati*. The Well of Manibarnika, filled with the sweat of Vishnu, forms one of the chief attractions for pilgrims, thousands of whom annually bathe in its fetid waters. Stone steps lead down to the edge, crowded with worshippers, whose sins are washed away by the

efficacious spring. The graceful Tárakeswar shrine fronts the well. The huge mass of Aurangzeb's mosque, built from the remains of a Hindu temple, towers conspicuously over the brink of a steep cliff, above the Mán Mandil *ghát*, with strong breastworks of masonry extending far down the bank. It is the most noticeable building in the city when seen from the river; but on a nearer view becomes chiefly remarkable for its slender minarets, 147 feet in height, and slightly inclined from the perpendicular. Bhaironáth, the divine guardian and watchman of Benares, has a famous temple near the public gardens; while his sacred baton or stone club, 4 feet in height, is deposited in a separate shrine hard by. But the Bisheswar or golden temple, dedicated to Siva, may perhaps be selected without invidiousness as the holiest among all the holy places of the sacred city. It stands close to the observatory, and contains the venerated symbol of the god, a plain Lingam of uncarved stone. Bisheswar rules Benares as spiritual monarch, under whom Bhaironáth acts merely as minister and magistrate. The building has a central spire, and each corner is crowned by a dome. The temple was erected by Ahalya Bai, the Marhattá Princess of Indore. The Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh of Lahore had the spire and domes covered with gold leaf, from which the temple derives its ordinary title. The Buddhist remains at Sárnáth, about 4 miles from the city, will be found under their proper heading. The most noticeable relic of early antiquity in Benares itself is the Lát Bhairo, a broken pillar, supposed to be a fragment of one among the many columns set up by the great Buddhist Emperor Asoka in the second century B.C. Many other fragmentary or mutilated monuments strew the ground outside the city, or form portions of Muhammadan edifices, into which they have been built as ready-made masonry. Few buildings of European origin deserve special mention. The most noteworthy is the Government college, a large structure in the perpendicular style, faced with Chanár freestone.

Manufactures, Trade, etc.—The wealth of Benares depends largely upon the constant influx of opulent pilgrims from every part of India, whose presence lends the same impetus to the local trade as that given to European watering-places by the season visitors. Many of the pilgrims are Rájás or other persons of importance, who bring considerable retinues, and become large benefactors to the various shrines and temples. Hindu princes of distant States pride themselves upon keeping up a 'town residence' in holy Kási. But besides the wealth which thus flows passively into the *bázárs* of Benares, a considerable trade is carried on by the merchants and bankers. The sugar, indigo, and saltpetre of the District find a market in the city. The trans-Gogra products of Gorakhpur and Basti, and the raw materials of Jaunpur, form large items in the through traffic of Benares. Manchester goods

are imported in considerable quantities, and distributed to the neighbouring local centres. The chief manufactures comprise silks and shawls, cloth embroidered in gold and silver thread, gold filagree work, jewellery, and enchased brass vessels. The principal institutions are—the Queen's College, which has a roll of 700 students; the Normal School; missions in connection with the Church of England, the Baptist, and the London missionary societies; Jái Naráyan's College; and the Benares Institute, a society mainly composed of native gentlemen, and devoted to literature, science, and social progress. The local affairs of Benares are conducted by a municipal committee of 24 members, of whom 7 are official, 12 are elective, and 5 nominated. In 1875-76 the municipal income amounted to £25,032—from taxes, £11,837, or 1s. 7½d. per head of population (187,341) within municipal limits.

Benares.—*Tahsíl* of Benares District, North-Western Provinces, comprising all the portion of the District lying north of the Ganges, and including the city of Benares. Area (1872), 577 square miles, of which 402 are cultivated; pop. 568,338 souls; land revenue, £62,163; total revenue, £66,006; rental paid by cultivators, £102,049; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 4½d.

Benares.—Estate, comprising the Family Domains of the Mahárájá of Benares, consisting of the *parganás* of Kaswar Rájá in Benares District and Gangapur and Bhadohí in Mirzapur District. United area, 985 square miles; number of villages, 1520; pop. 392,415; average rental, somewhat exceeding £80,000, of which nearly £30,000 is paid as revenue to the British Government. The State is in political relation with the Government of the North-Western Provinces; and the family domains have been specially exempted from the operation of Act xviii. of 1871 (an Act for the levy of land rates for local purposes, North-Western Provinces). The Mahárájá, His Highness Srí Prasád Naráyan Sinh Bahádur, G.C.S.I., is a Gautam Bráhman of the Bhuinhár clan. He has received a *sanad* giving him rights of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 13 guns. The family of the Mahárájá lay claim to great antiquity; but the real founder was Mansa Rám, whose son, Balwant Sinh, marched with the Mughal Emperor, Sháh Alam, and the Nawáb of Oudh, Shujá-ud-daulá, to expel the British from Bengal. In this expedition, Balwant Sinh acted a prudent part, and awaited the result of the battle of Baxar, after which he joined the British camp; and the *zamíndárí* was finally transferred to the British Government in 1775, subject to a tribute, and on condition of his adopting measures for the preservation of the peace of the country. In 1778 the Rájá was required to subsidize three battalions of Sepoys; and in 1780 he was also required to employ his cavalry for the general service of the State. Rájá Chait Sinh, son of Balwant Sinh, manifested great reluctance to meet these demands, and was also believed to be

disaffected, and to hold correspondence with the enemies of the British Government. He was accordingly arrested by order of Warren Hastings; but he escaped, collected troops, and headed a rebellion, which was crushed after a few petty skirmishes. Chait Sinh was deprived of his estate, which was given to his nephew, Mahip Sinh, grandson of Balwant Sinh, subject to a tribute. The present Mahárájá is a nephew of Mahip Sinh's son, and succeeded in 1835.

END OF VOLUME I.

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